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ABSTRACT

Six papers address issues in the transition of students with disabilities into the adult world of work. In "Workplace Support," Jeff McNair defines "support," differentiates types of support, and considers various foci of intervention. The second paper titled, "Cross-Cultural Transition: An Exigent Topic for Study" by Nancy Kronick, reviews research on students identified as "at risk," minority individuals with disabilities, the importance of education in successful transition, a hypothesis regarding poor academic and work performance by ethnic minorities, service delivery models and programs, and Native American community-based education and programs. The third paper, titled "Legal Aspects of Transition to Employment and Independent Living for Individuals with Disabilities" by Stanley L. Swartz, summarizes key legislative acts concerning special education, vocational education, and employment. Community integration issues are noted. Next, Carol Gentili and Ann Vessey in "A 'Special Needs' Job Developer" look at aspects of job preparation, the job search, job training, and job maintenance. The fifth paper titled, "Transition from Institutional Settings for Children and Youth with Social Problems" by Richard Ashcroft offers a model of social interaction along the dimensions of topographical, ecological, and social features. The last paper, "Parent Involvement in Transition Programs" by Jeff McNair and Frank R. Rusch, analyzed 108 survey responses concerning parent involvement in the transition process and found that about two-thirds were involved in or anticipated involvement in their child's transition program. (Individual papers contain references.) (DB)

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Issues In Transition

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

WORKPLACE SUPPORT
Jeff McNair, Ph.D.

5

CROSS-CULTURAL TRANSITION: AN EXIGENT TOPIC FOR STUDY
Nancy Kronick M.A.

11

LEGAL ASPECTS OF TRANSITION TO EMPLOYMENT AND INDEPENDENT LIVING FOR INDIVIDUALS WITH DISABILITIES
Stanley L. Swartz, Ph. D.

20

A "SPECIAL NEEDS" JOB DEVELOPER
Carol Gentili and Ann Vessey M.A.

27

TRANSITION FROM INSTITUTIONAL SETTINGS FOR CHILDREN AND YOUTH WITH SOCIAL PROBLEMS
Richard Ashcroft, Ed. D.

37

PARENT INVOLVEMENT IN TRANSITION PROGRAMS
Jeff McNair, Ph. D.
and
Frank R. Rusch, Ph. D.
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign
April, 1988

41

WORKPLACE SUPPORT

By Jeff McNair, Ph.D.

In her now classic article of 1984, Madeline Will discussed three pathways for transition from school to adult life. The characteristic differentiating these pathways was the level of support provided to facilitate the transition. The first pathway she described is the one traveled by most people when they move to adult life. That is, they move directly to work without the need for any external support being provided (at least no external support provided via government funded programs). The second pathway allowed for the provision of time limited external support services. These services may take the form of special vocational training, time limited independent living supports and other forms of service. The key to this pathway, however, is that support is provided on a time limited basis. That is, the day will come when the individual accessing support services will no longer need the services being provided. The final pathway Will described is the provision of ongoing support services. These services are provided for as long as they are needed. In the area of work, supported employment programs characterize this pathway (Rusch, 1990).

The outcomes for these three pathways are different. For the "no special services" pathway and the "time limited special services" pathway, the outcome is competitive employment. Competitive employment is defined as, "...work that produces valued goods or services at a minimum wage or more, and in a setting that includes nonhandicapped workers and provides opportunities for advancement" (Rusch, 1986). The third pathway, "ongoing special services" has as its outcome supported employment. That is, the outcome for supported employment programs is supported employment. Supported employment is defined as follows:

> Paid employment which a) is for persons with disabilities for whom competitive employment at or above the minimum wage is unlikely and who because of their disabilities, need ongoing support to perform in a work setting, b) is conducted in a variety of settings, particularly work sites in which persons without disabilities are employed, and c) is supported by any activity needed to sustain paid work by persons with disabilities, including super vision, training and transportation.
>
> (Federal Register, 1987)

SUPPORT

Up to this point in our discussion we have used the term support as if it were given that the definition is understood. For our purposes, support is,

> "... continuous or periodic job skill training services provided at least twice monthly at the work site throughout the term of employment to enable the individual to perform the work. The term also includes other support services provided at or away from the work site such as transportation, personal care services, and counseling to family members, if skill training services are also needed and provided to that individual at the work site."
>
> (Federal Register, 1987)

Types of Support

McNair and Rusch (in press) described three types of support (see Table 1). These are: pre-employment support, job acquisition support and job maintenance support. Let us discuss each of these support types briefly. Pre-employment support is generally that provided prior to job acquisition or job maintenance. Most often, this support is related to training, although other forms of transition services (working with parents, facilitating linkages with adult service providers, career exploration, etc.) could also be considered pre-employment support. Pre-employment support is provided by local special education programs, or in the case of the re-entry of an individual into the work force, pre-employment support might be provided by adult service agencies or contracted service vendors. Job acquisition support involves many of the activities typically involved in supported employment. These services include, job survey and development, job match, job placement and other liaison activities between parents, employers and agencies. This support is provided once again by schools, adult service agencies, employment agencies and service vendors. The final support type is job maintenance support. Although pre-employment and job acquisition support may be needed in varying degrees throughout the individual with disabilities' employment tenure, it is job maintenance support which is most often what comes to mind when considering the "ongoing support" of ongoing support services. This type of support includes the items listed in Table 1.

TABLE

TYPES OF SUPPORT
Pre-employment Support
Training
Advocating
Associating
Evaluating
Befriending
Working with Parents/Significant Others
Information Giving
Job Acquisition Support
Job Survey and Development
Working with Parents/Significant Others
Job Match
Job Placement
Agency Liason
Job Maintenance Support
Training/Facilitating Training
Associating/Facilitating Associations
Befriending/Facilitating Friendships
Advocating/Facilitating Advocating
Evaluation/Facilitating Evaluation
Information Giving/Facilitating Information Giving
Working with Parents/Significant Others
Agency Liason

Job Coaches as Support Providers

Pre-employment and job acquisition support are most often provided by teachers and agency personnel such as job developers or job coaches. Of these, job maintenance support is most often provided by job coaches. In considering the appropriateness of support delivery methods, one must question the job coach model as the least restrictive purveyor of job maintenance support in that the majority of employees are supported in their employment, by their employer not by a job coach. Additionally, the level of support provided by an employer to some extent is a measure of the employer's commitment to the worker. Obviously, all workers need support from the work environment in order to be successful. Ideally, support should be an activity of the employing agency or company, and the presence of the job coach in the employment environment is not only a stigmatizing but also a potentially debilitating factor. By providing external support to the worker with disabilities we undermine the commitment of the employer to the worker. Beside wages, support is the main vehicle whereby the employer expresses confidence in a worker. For example, employers demonstrate this commitment by allowing workers to continue their employment when they must take a leave of absence from work. Employers recognize the value of a good worker and are often willing to go above and beyond to keep a particular employee. However, by providing support from the outside, we rob the worker with disabilities of a potentially job maintaining relationship.

A further example of potentially undermining external support is the Targeted Jobs Tax Credit program. In this program, employers are relieved of making the same investment in a worker with disabilities as a nondisabled worker via the provision of tax credits. This diluted investment may set the stage for a diminished commitment and potential job loss.

In addition, employers are beginning to see the cost effectiveness of providing support, particularly to good entry level workers because of monies saved in training and staff turnover costs, and in the consistency and often high quality of the work performed. In terms of Gold's competence/deviance hypothesis (1980), the deviance of the worker due to both his/her disability and his/her need for support becomes cut-weighed by the competence of the individual in long term work and consistency of performance. Interestingly, once employers make this connection, they become sold on hiring workers with disabilities. Then, because of the benefits they see for their business, they become willing to make increased commitments by investing the currency of support in workers with disabilities.

INTERVENTION FOCI

Special education has been a boon to persons with disabilities. One tenet of PL94-142 which has been applied to community based training, is the Individualized Education Plan (IEP). The goal of the IEP is to provide an education which specifically addresses the needs of each student. Assessments of student skills are made, deficits and strengths are noted, and a custom-tailored program of education is produced. Although this approach has been successful in educational settings, the application of the model to the work setting, as is commonly done, needs further investigation. This is because in some ways the IEP model has had a detrimental effect on persons with disabilities particularly in supported employment. Under the IEP, the individual is tested and interventions are designed to positively impact the individual. The individual possesses a deficit, behavior problem, etc., which has caused him to need "special" educational approaches. The educational venue is hopefully a caring environment wherein variability in ability is tolerated. However, the workplace is a different environment. Application of the IEP model to the workplace (supported employment in particular) causes one to

once again focus on the employee with disabilities when problems occur such as short term job tenure, job loss, poor vocational skill performance, etc. The focus of intervention continues to be on the employee with disabilities, as it is assumed that workplace problems are related to the person's disability and therefore the focus of intervention should be aimed at the person with the disability. We even use the term "target employee" at times when referring to a worker with disabilities (i.e., the employee is the target of intervention).

There is a serious problem with this approach. It might be called the "blaming the victim" syndrome. An example of this thesis in action is the classic Greenspan and Shoutz (1981) article. The authors observed that most workers loose their jobs due to social skill deficits. However, social skill deficits may be culturally derived, and, as with beauty, they are in the eye of the beholder. By way of example, let's once again consider Marc Gold's competence deviance hypothesis which simply states, the more competent an individual is, the more deviance is tolerated. This was graphically demonstrated recently in Hollywood. An attractive and fairly competent actor, allegedly videotaped himself having sexual intercourse with an underaged female. Although the media had a "feeding frenzy" over the affair, it was in many ways laughed off, because of the actor's acting ability, his cool persona, and his handsome appearance. However, it is suspected that should an individual representing an undervalued population such as an illegal immigrant or in the case of this paper, an individual with a disability, engaged in the same behavior, society's tolerance would have been much less, and perhaps that individual would have experienced punishment to the full extent of the law.

The point of this discussion is that behaviors do not occur in a void. Using the above example, the presence of social skill or the lack thereof is culturally determined by individuals in the environment, and the valuation of appropriateness changes with environments, culture, and persons in the environments. Other factors also come into play such as potentially stigmatizing characteristics of the individual, environmental attitudes, and relationships with the focal individual. People with disabilities have been exiting institutions in increasing numbers over the past 15 years. They are now being educated in the local schools. Recall that these are individuals who have been the focus of fear and discrimination since the time of Edouard Seguin, and as Ryan and Thomas (1987) state, "Their history has been more what people have done to them . . . rather than their own history." The worker with a disability enters an employment environment in our current post-institutionalization time period. After a while on the job, he may be fired from his work, most often for "social skill deficits." As professionals, our response most typically is to intervene with the person with the disability in some way to improve his or her social skills. Under the IEP model, the individual with the disability owns the problem and needs the intervention. Although it is true that some acceptable skill level is necessary, intervention efforts might be better spent in altering the environment in which the individual is having difficulty instead of "blaming the victim" for an unaccepting environment.

Therefore, when social skill problems surface relative to a worker with disabilities, assuming that the worker owns the problem could very well be discriminatory and unfair. Reevaluation must occur when a group which has traditionally been feared, maltreated, and misunderstood finally makes its way into the mainstream and evidences failure on the basis of "social skills."

This is further illustrated by research in the area of social validation. Rusch, Weithers, Menchetti & Schutz (1980), describe a situation in which co-workers complained that a worker with disabilities engaged in topic repetition during lunch time conversation. The investigators conducted a social comparison exercise during which they counted the number of times that co-workers repeated topics. With the co-worker levels as their intervention goal, they trained the target employee to only repeat topics at the co-worker level. In spite of this training, co-workers indicated there had been no change in topic repetition. One must question whether co-worker complaints were in actual response to target employee skill levels or the result of a more visceral response to target employee characteristics potentially unrelated to skill levels. Perhaps if intervention had been aimed at the environment to make it more tolerant, the changes in the individual would have been unnecessary.

Therefore, the focus of intervention when an individual with a disability is fired due to poor social skills should not automatically be the individual, but potentially the small group comprising the immediate environment who were not tolerant of small differences in the individual with the disability. Interventions might also be focused at the company or organization which covertly supports a lack of tolerance, and ultimately at the society of which the small group and organization are but a sample. This approach has been also described as " training the environment to respond in a functional manner" (Snell, 1987).

Rappaport (1981) discussed this hierarchy in his "levels of intervention analysis," indicating that interventions can be focused at the individual level (the target employee), the small group level (co-workers working in the employee with disabilities immediate area), the organizational level (the business where the employee works)

7

and the societal level. Clearly interventions must continue to be developed which focus on all levels of intervention analysis, and reasons for job separation and job termination must be more thoroughly investigated.

New Foci for Interventions

How then might interventions look which focus on levels of intervention analysis other than the individual level? Many innovative and successful programs have used a variety of strategies nationally including 1) increasing the employer's investment in the worker with disabilities in terms of a willingness to provide support, 2) increasing the employers perception of the employee's competence (resulting in a higher tolerance for deviance), 3) increasing the credibility of the worker with disabilities or the program facilitating employment of the worker via the backing of individuals having esteem in the eyes of employers, and/or 4) providing support to the work environment to provide support to the worker with disabilities. Let us consider each of these strategies below.

Increasing the employer's investment in the worker with disabilities in terms of a willingness to provide support. This strategy entails the search for avenues from the outset, whereby the employer is also interested in, invested in or desirous that the target employee be successful. Once the employer becomes desirous that the worker be successful, at that point the employer has invested the currency of support in the worker with disabilities.

An example of how this approach has been used, is demonstrated by the work done by Hazazi, Gordon & Roe (1985) relative to the parent-family-friend network. This highly successful means of identifying potential jobs for persons with disabilites not only takes advantage of the network which a family develops over time, but also the mutually beneficial expectations of networks. Because the potential employer is somehow involved/invested in the network through friendship, business connections, etc. he is interested in ongoing positive regard from the network. There is therefore an increased willingness on the part of the employer to provide support in order to help an individual to succeed who represents the network (in order to please the network).

Increasing the employer's perception of the employee's competence (resulting in a higher tolerance for deviance). This strategy has been used successfully in concert with the Social Security Administration's Plan for Achieving Self Support (PASS) program. In Colorado for example, workers with disabilities use PASS monies to buy expensive pieces of equipment valued by local industry employers (David Hammis, personal communication, September 4, 1991). The equipment purchased is such that it not only facilitates employment for the individual with the disability, but offers the employer the potential to expand the business. Workers with disabilities trained on this special equipment are as a result, easily placed, with employers wanting more employees with similar skills and equipment. Suddenly, comparatively minor social skill deficits are not as important because the worker arrives with highly valued vocational skills and the equipment to use these skills. Therefore, rather than working on the further generalization of social skills, the focus of this effort has changed to altering the environment in which the skills will be demonstrated, making it more accepting of individual differences.

Increasing the credibility of the worker with disabilities or the program facilitating employment of the worker via the backing of individuals having esteem in the eyes of employers. The so called "corporate initiative" has been successful in facilitating the employment of persons with disabilites for a variety of reasons. This strategy focuses on the corporate office as a major focus for job development activities (McNair & Bonds, 1991). The benefits of this approach are, 1) should the corporate office embrace a program, the number of sites potentially serving as work placements are multiplied, 2) the investment in an employment program is made on a corporate level and is therefore less affected by staff and other changes on a local level and 3) tolerance of deviance in workers with disabilities is greater because "competence" has been increased through the corporate commitment to success. Because the corporate office has made the decision to support the employment of persons with disabilities, and will be checking on the success of the workers, there is now the incentive to provide the currency for success; support.

Once again, via an outside influence, the environment receiving the worker with disabilities is altered resulting in a decreased emphasis on perfect social skills coupled with an increased commitment to provide support.

Providing support to the work environment to provide support to the worker with disabilities. The types of job maintenance support which job coaches provide, have been described in the literature (see Table 1). These roles include, training, associating, befriending, advocating, evaluating, providing information, facilitating each of the above and working with parents or significant others including agencies. Studies have also indicated that each of the roles "traditionally" embraced by job coaches are simultaneously being provided by co-workers to varying degrees (McNair, 1991). The question then, must therefore be asked, whether job coach provided support should be so pervasive. Agencies must be fiscally responsible for the ways in which dollars are expended.

By closely monitoring employment sites via the collection of data on support needs versus support being provided by individuals indigenous to the employment site, a simple discrepancy analysis can be completed. The result of this analysis would be the identification of the minimum amount of support needed by employees with disabilities and subsequently only that level of support being delivered by job coaches. Such an approach would not only reduce the costs of support provision but would be less stigmatizing to the employee with disabilities.

As a result of this approach, money would be saved in that job coaches would only need to be on a job site to deliver support specific to a particular area. Job coach presence therefore would not be determined by the amount of time an agency predetermines any coach should spend on any job site (McNair, 1991), but by the support needs of the employee with disabilities. Work is currently underway to determine exactly what job coaches are doing during each visit to a supported employment site. Using many of the job maintenance categories listed in table 1, job coaches are determining whether they, co-workers, or others in the employment site are:

Training target employee on social skills
Training target employee on specific job skills
Training target employee on pre-employment skills
Providing information to the employee with disabilities
Advocating with co-workers or supervisors
Evaluating target employee performance
Providing information to co-workers
Facilitating advocating by co-workers
Facilitating associations with co-workers
Facilitating training by co-workers
Facilitating provision of information by co-workers
(McNair, Nevils, Gentili, Vessey & Muni, 1991)

It is assumed, that by definition, employees in supported employment need support. However, assessment of support being provided must include the possibility that support is being provided by employees of the employing company. In actuality, supported employment may continue, but, it might not be labeled as such, because the job coach may have largely faded from the scene.

Philosophically, a more judicious use of job coaches as described above makes the supported employment model more appropriate and appealing. Using a medical illustration, a surgeon when operating, does not randomly operate on internal organs. Upon the basis of extensive data, the surgeon enters the body, operates on the effected organ and exits the body. Similarly, the job coach should surgically provide the level of support needed by the employee with a disability in the work site. Additionally, once the "procedure" has been completed, the job coach should remove or turn over support to the environment in order for the individual to function as much as possible on his own. Again using the medical illustration, should ongoing life support be necessary, it can be provided. However, a dialysis patient isn't routinely placed in an iron lung or fed gastrointestinally. He/She is given dialysis treatments. Other procedures would be an unnecessary intrusion on the individual, and most people do not choose to have medical procedures they do not need. Similarly as stated above, job coaches in employment settings are an intrusion; they should provide only the minimal level of support needed.

At times, it may be that individuals in the work environment do not know how to provide support to a worker with a disability. For this reason is may be beneficial to provide support to the work environment regarding how to best support the worker with a disability. Such an approach makes the assumption, however, that "indigenees," entry level workers and others in the employment setting, have the ability to provide support. It can be stated that generally speaking, entry level workers in the business community are similar to entry level workers in human services, particularly job coaches. It is therefore not an unrealistic expectation for indigenees to be support providers comparable to job coaches. The issue then comes in instilling the incentive, motivation, or interest on the part of indigenees to provide support to workers with disabilities. A variety of approaches have been attempted varying from sensitivity training for co-workers, to augmenting co-worker salaries, to building a mentor role into a co-worker's job description. The problem with these approaches, however, continues to be 1) An external agent is providing the incentive to employers to support all of their employees which should already be occurring, 2) Job coaches still remain in a role for which as a group they have not been well trained, and 3)The problem of external support potentially robbing an individual of a job maintaining relationship. The positive aspect of this approach is that it moves one step away from the placement of a job coach in the employment environment to directly supporting a worker with a disability, therefore moving away from an approach which continues to blame the victim.

OBSERVATION

Marc Gold summed up a different way of looking at this situation, prior to his untimely death, by redefining disability. He defined mental retardation as " a level of

functioning which requires from society, significantly above average training procedures and superior assets in adaptive behavior on the part of society, manifested throughout the life of both society and the individual" (Marc Gold, 1980). By taking the onus for change from the individual exclusively, and sharing it with the environment, we may find that change should also be on society's IEP.

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CROSS-CULTURAL TRANSITION: AN EXIGENT TOPIC FOR STUDY

By Nancy Kronick, M.A.

For many individuals from this country's ethnic minority populations, aspirations in education and in the world of work have gone unfulfilled or fallen far short of preconceived goals. As stated by an individual in a recent poll of Mexican-Americans living in Laredo, Texas, "Me aguanto" (I endure) is the painful reality of her life. In that city of 93% Mexican-origin population, the unemployment rate is 25-30% and half the households earn less than $10,000.00 per year (McKee, 1989).

In California, 50% of immigrants from Cambodia, Laos and Vietnam receive public assistance. In other U.S. states, 43% of these families with children live below the poverty level (Gordon & Friedenberg, 1988).

Apparently, American Indians fare no better than these Asian peoples, and Liebow (1989) reports that they are even less well -off than their Black or Hispanic counterparts. (The 1983 census showed American Indians in the Phoenix area to be 70% more economically deprived than Hispanics and 20% more so than Blacks in that same area.) Liebow goes on to state that merely belonging to an American Indian household is cause to be 5 times more likely to be living below or just at the poverty level than being a member of any other U.S. household.

Salend and Fradd (1986) remind us that it is evident that populations with limited English-speaking abilities are enlarging substantially in the U.S. This has serious implications in the field of education and also for the workplace. Romo (1984) reports that by the year 2,000, it is expected that 80% of the U.S. workforce will consist of women, minorities and immigrants. Asian-Americans presently constitute one of the most rapidly growing ethnic groups in the U.S. (Gordon & Friedenberg, 1988). From 1975 to 1980, the number of Asians settling in the United States numbered 5 million. This figure is expected to double by the year 2,000.

Atkins & Wright (1980) state, "...the problems accompanying minority status and poverty are increasingly included among the disabling conditions addressed by rehabilitation." They also point out, "...members of minority groups may be handicapped not only by physical, mental, or emotional impairments, but also from cultural disadvantages."

There is a dearth of information relating to cross-cultural transition and presently, there are not sufficient studies carried out in this area for a critical assessment of the status of knowledge. This paucity can perhaps best be explained simply by using the term omission. Cross-cultural issues are often viewed as not being part of the overall transition scheme. They have, for the most part, been overlooked--omitted. Indeed, it is not uncommon for transition literature to exclude this topic altogether, focusing instead on the more common (and popular) concerns of transition for those with physical, developmental, learning and psychological disabilities and to a lesser extent, those with behavioral disorders.

Transition, although certainly not a brand-new topic of study, has nonetheless, a relatively recent emphasis. This emphasis has its roots in the two fields Transition has become most asociated with; Special Education and Rehabilitation Counseling. These disciplines have historically stressed disabilities in the following sequence: physical/sensory, developmental, learning, psychological and behavioral. Cross-cultural issues are pretty much the new kid on the block.

Until recently, cross-cultural studies have been left to the realm of anthropology, sociology and to a smaller degree, psychology and biology. These disciplines however, do not stress transition.

The field of education has, in recent years, become highly concerned with cross-cultural issues, and it is from this research that much of this paper , an overview, is drawn.

BEING AT-RISK

The term at-risk as it relates to transition refers to those students of high school age who are in danger of dropping out. While it certainly cannot be generalized that all youth from ethnic minorities will encounter difficulties during the crucial transitional period from secondary education to work or on to post-secondary schooling, many of the factors considered to be relative to a youth's potential for drop-out apply to them in larger percentages than to mainstream students. Sometimes all of these factors apply.

Naylor (1989) believes that the Department of Public Instruction in Wisconsin has one of the best definitions of the state of being at-risk as a student. They cite 14 factors:

Being one or more years behind their grade level in reading or math (in grades K-8) or three or more credits behind their age/grade level in credits

11

earned toward graduation (in grades 9-12)

Being chronically truant; being a school-age parent; having a history of personal and/or family drug and alcohol abuse

Having parents who have low expectations for their child's success or who place little value on edu cation

Being a victim of physical, sexual, or emotional abuse

Experiencing a family trauma (such as death or divorce)

Being economically, culturally, or educationally disadvantaged;

And coming from a family with a history of dropouts.

Additional risk factors include low intelligence test scores, low self-concept and social maturity, feelings of alienation, and certain types of handicaps and limiting conditions. (p. 1).

The Minority Individual With A Disability

Another area this overview will address is that of the student from an ethnic minority, often with limited English-speaking abilities, who in addition, has a physical, developmental, emotional or learning handicap. Such an individual has multiple problems which may limit his ability to make a successful transition into the workplace or post-secondary education.

This population may suffer in securing both the Special Education and vocational rehabilitation services they need, in that "...few states have established procedures and guidelines for delivering educational services to limited English-proficient (LEP) handicapped students" (Salend & Fradd, 1986). As to vocational rehabilitation (VR) services, problems encountered by minority clients include fewer minority clients accepted for services as compared to White clients, cases often closed before successful rehabilitation takes place, and less job-related education and training for minority clients as compared to White (even though often what is needed is more). These clients may be viewed by the rehabilitation agency or counselor as "difficult" to rehabilitate or place (Atkins & Wright, 1980).

Factors relating to Special Educational service delivery problems for this cohort encompass areas such as a lack of bilingual Special Education teachers, testing and assessment instruments which may be racially and ethnically biased and/ or not normed or appropriate for (LEP) persons with disabilities, a need for more information on the proper and effective instructional practices to be utilized with the LEP handicapped population, clarification of eligibility standards, a need to establish an operational definition for the category of (LEP) handicapped, a state co-ordinator to liason between Bilingual, regular and Special Education, and curriculum developed for the unique needs of (LEP) handicapped . Curriculum suggestions focus on achievment of language proficiency, developing a wide range of social and academic skills, vocational and career awareness and multicultural awareness (Salend & Fradd, 1986).

Atkins & Wright (1980), make a number of suggestions in the area of vocational rehabilitation service delivery for Black disabled clients that can be extrapolated to other minority disabled clients.

1. Improvement in techniques to identify disabled minority VR clients.

2. Increased advocacy for minorities, people with disabilities and minorities with disabilities.

3. Increased levels of expertise for rehabilitation counselors; Master's Degree and certified (where applicable).

4. Increased awareness and training in culturally-related issues for rehabilitation counselors.

5. Increased percentages of minority counselors hired to handle minority caseloads.

6. Dual language training encouraged for rehabilitation professionals.

7. More extensive VR assistance to minority disabled populations to equalize their opportunity in the competitive labor market.

8. Case credit (extra closure weight), earmarked budgets and longer case process time.

Although the present discussion concerning this population is brief due to parameters of this overview, research in the area of disabled members of ethnic groups is of paramount importance if we are to facilitate the successful transitioning of these individuals.

Education As The Key For Successful Transition

How do minority and ethnic populations view themselves? Seventy-two percent of those queried in a 1989 report by McKee answered "no" to the question of whether the child of a barrio had the same chance to succeed as a child from a family with more advantages. Also in this same report, respondents repeatedly mentioned a need to defend themselves. McKee states, "The need to defend onself (defenderse) was mentioned so often and by so many respondents that it makes an indelible impression on the auditor. Barrio residents appear to see themselves as severely handicapped contenders in an unequal struggle. They feel that they cannot fend off powerful antagonists or protect themselves against the ineluctable modalities of life, as indeed they cannot." Education is

seen as the armor in that defensive battle.

Unequivocably, education is viewed as the main factor for a successful transition into the world of work by ethnic minorities in the U.S. Harvey (1988) states that education is vital for the future because we continue moving towards establishment of a service and information economy from that of an industrial one. If minorities are to successfully compete for the range of jobs implied by this type of economy, they must have higher level skills.

Wilson (1988), sees education as the paramount factor in developing leadership qualities for Blacks. He states that within the Black culture, except for the ministry, leadership positions in academia and in professional areas are almost never achieved without university-level training. Consequently, he believes it is imperative that Black students successfully make the transition into post-secondary education. Likewise, Harvey (1988) says, "The path to liberation for Americans of African descent has repeatedly been linked to the quality of education that they receive."

Ninety-nine percent of transitional age Lao and Vietnamese youth being processed at a refugee center stated a desire to go to school (Gordon & Friedenberg, 1988). Additionally, Hispanic barrio resident parents are extremely concerned that their children receive an education as the main means in equalizing their opportunities for good jobs in this country (McKee,1989). Romo (1984) reports that undocumented Hispanic families consider education for their children in the U.S. so vital that they risk exposure of their undocumented status by enrolling their children in school.

However, in many instances, education has not met the challenge. "There exists little doubt that minority students fare poorly in public school settings" (Cardoza & Rueda, 1986).

Gordon & Friedenberg (1988) tell us that it is a popular misconception that Asian-Americans always achieve high levels of success in education, work and integration into American society. While there have, admittedly, been many successes of this type, Asian-Americans are increasingly experiencing problems.

Other groups, such as American Indians, demonstrate at 4-year institutions (particularly in the Southwest) to be in the 75-85% drop-out range, except for California (Pottinger, 1989). Cargile & Woods (1988) predict a decline in Black enrollment in post-secondary institutions as the decade of the 90's is entered. They say that Black students "lose ground" in comparison to Whites at every successive educational level. Others believe that Blacks will be unable to attain the levels of education needed for our increasingly high-tech society (Harvey, 1988).

Cardoza & Rueda (1986) posit that Hispanic students do not achieve the same levels of success that Anglo and other students do. Researchers such as McKee (1989) tend to agree with work done by Hansen in 1981 in that for every year of schooling past the eighth grade, Mexican-Americans do less-well economically than other Americans of the same educational level. This seems to be especially true for males. A lack of local jobs appropriate for males with higher education in many of the border areas where Mexican-American populations are clustered may be one reason. It is often financially impossible for these youth to make a move in the interest of economic betterment. Very often when they do leave to seek employment appropriate to their education, they experience cultural prejudice for the first time in work and housing, causing them to return to the security of the border environment. Familial ties, especially with parents who live locally or just across the border in Mexico is yet another reason these youth tend to stay in less advantageous areas.

However, for Mexican-Americans with eighth grade or lower educational levels, individuals fare better economically than their American counterparts these researchers found, although why this is so has not been established. Willingness to accept any type of menial work, work longer hours at less pay and share resources such as housing, food and transportation with other workers may contribute to this issue.

Hypothesis For Ethnic Minority Poor Academic And Work Performance

For decades, educators and educational researchers have attempted to understand the high rate of academic failure among minority youth (Swisher & Deyhle, 1989). "The issues associated with lowered achievement levels of minority students in the United States public schools continue to generate controversy at both the applied and theoretical levels" (Cardoza & Rueda, 1986).

Reasons for low achievement, failings and drop-out have encompassed such areas as cultural disadvantage, language and literacy problems, inappropriate placement, financial aid needs, lack of culturally-relevant curriculum, inadequate programs, misunderstanding, unstable and undependable financing for minority institutions such as Black and tribal colleges, a failure of the schools to "pursue excellence" (Harvey, 1988), a lack of minority teachers and a decline in minorities aspiring to these positions, ethnic and race discrimination, test bias, genetic characteristics and cognitive variables.

Cardoza and Rueda (1986) believe that Duran's findings in 1983 that suggest a lack of success in the types of courses necessary for university preparedness may

have great validity in explaining poor job and post-secondary educational performance for minority students, may apply to Hispanic students, as success in these types of courses is often a problem for them.

This would be in keeping with similar studies relating to Black students. The Southern Regional Education Board in 1986 called for better academic preparation for higher education in this group. They predicted a decline in Black college enrollment entering the 1990's if measures were not taken (Cargile & Woods, 1988).

These authors also say that recent data indicated less than 1/3 (26%) of Black high school students have taken the type of curriculum considered requisite for college (three or more years of natural sciences, social studies and mathematics and four years of English) as compared to Whites, 34% and Asians, 44%.

English language problems, level of education of the student's parents, classroom interactional process problems and personal and background situations of many types are also areas of importance (Cardoza & Rueda, 1986).

Cultural mismatch, also called the cultural gap hypothesis or cultural difference is one hypothesis that looks at why minority-ethnic groups have problems in educational, work and other cross-cultural settings. Swisher & Deyhle (1989) explain this hypothesis as a difference in values between those found in the home and those found at school, creating "value conflicts". They cite home as representing community , and school as representing society. While these two researchers view the cultural gap hypothesis as belonging more to the late 1960's and early 1970's, Buenning and Tollefson (1987) find it still a valid construct today as they studied Mexican-American students.

They found in their study that this cultural conflict does not decrease as might be expected as the student gets older. Rather, as the student's age increases, their research has shown the gulf in performance between Anglo-American and Mexican -American students actually expands.

In the 1970's, researchers felt that the interactional context in the classroom was the key—how do the various minority cultures prefer to learn and demonstrate what they learn? (Swisher & Deyhle, 1989).

About that time, Ogbu's theoretical model became popular; ethnic groups and their progress in school need to be viewed from the larger framework of their perceptions and experiences in the job market (Pottinger, 1989).

Pottinger also agrees with Ogbu's belief that members of minority-ethnic groups may also actually create an oppositional identity. This identity serves to maintain group cohesiveness even at the cost of individual success. On the other hand, American Indians who have adapted most successfully in school and work are those who have most kept a distinct spiritual identity (Pottinger, 1989). It would appear then that "Indian-ness" is a valuable trait to be encouraged in Indian youth.

George and Louise Spindler (1989) of Stanford have done work on the concept of self as being applicable to today's linguistic minorities "as they strive for self-esteem in unfavorable academic contexts."

The Spindlers posit that we all have an enduring and a situational self. One's enduring self has a traditional/historical perspective, possibly even romantic/ideal, while the situational self is the self that is attempting to adapt to the immediate environment and realities of modern life. When these two selfs are in conflict, as is the case when an individual from one cultural background attempts to integrate into another cultural background, problems or culture conflict result.

With school-age youth, the problem is not as simplistic as not being able to perform as well as mainstream students. The problem begins before that. "The assumption that the whole self-concept is dependent upon school performance may be quite incorrect". Actually, the concept of self-efficacy , a subset of self-esteem, may be more important (Spindler & Spindler, 1989). That is, self-efficacy could be "A prediction that one will be able to meet the demands of the situation effectively. A student with feelings of self-efficacy thinks that he or she can answer questions, pass exams, read adequately, get the work done, as well or better than most others."

The question obviously is then, how do we aid self-efficacy in students?

Cultural Therapy, also called Anthropotherapy by Brameld in the 1960's involves consciousness-raising with pupils and teachers. How one's cultural milieu may be contributing to one's feelings of success or failure is explored, rather than why the individual himself or aspects of his personality may be at fault. This of course is a cognitive approach. The individual is aided thoroughly in the exploration of his thoughts and feelings as they relate to his own culture and that of the mainstream culture. The nature of the conflict must be made explicit in cultural terms. Using this approach in counseling, one would need a good working knowledge of the student's culture, be of the same culture, or from another culture having experienced similar problems in one's own adjustment.

The delivery of services and the types of services, programs and educational settings all play roles in developing and aiding self-efficacy and self-esteem in transitional age minority youth. We now will briefly explore services and their delivery.

14

SERVICE DELIVERY MODELS AND PROGRAMS

Service delivery models and programs tend to fall into "types". We begin with Lowry's (1990) four categories of efficacious transitional service delivery models for at-risk youth:

Supportive Service Models

Programs of this type provide needed services such as counseling, diagnosis, evaluation, assessment, transportation, medical care and equipment procurement, job placement, recreation, protection, child care, financial aid and language facilitation.

Articulation and Communication Models

Integration and co-operation among federal, state and local transition-focused associations is the main thrust of models in this grouping.

Instructional Stage Models

These models take the position that transition is a dynamic process. They therefore focus on developmental contingencies over the life of the individual, rather than focusing exclusively on secondary school-to-work transition. Career awareness, exploration, preparation and implementation are areas stressed in models of this type.

Curriculum Content Models

Programs such as these attempt to pinpoint what skills are needed by youth to become employable. Areas they cover are occupational, social and basic skills.

All of these models work well in aiding youth from ethnic minorities in their transition from secondary education to post-secondary education and the world of work. The following, from Holmes & Collins (1988) are examples of some programs and alternative and supplemental educational options that can be classified under the above models:

Job Search

JobSearch is a program located within the traditional high school setting, and trains students in all facets of the art of seeking, preparing for, getting and keeping a job. Resume writing, mock job interviews, career exploration and discovering the hidden job market are but a few of the skills this approach trains students in. JobSearch also aids those students seeking postsecondary education.

The High School Academy

A school-within-a-school approach for at-risk students, these highly acclaimed programs work by fostering self-esteem and confidence in students. This approach utilizes such methods as team teaching in highly structured settings, block rostering of students (students go as a group from class to class), part-time jobs, involvement of parents, business and industry, help in job procurement and in post- secondary education. The High School Academy programs have a 90% attendance rate, near zero drop-out and 85% job or post- secondary education placement rates.

Employment Centers

Structured within the framework of existing high schools and under the guidance of a trained coordinator, preparation of students for employment is their basic goal.

Cities-In-Schools Model (CIS)

Schools with large percentages of at-risk students utilize this nation-wide program. Students are block rostered, receive social services and employment skills training and are guaranteed a summer job if they are promoted to the next grade.

Alternative High Schools and LEP Services

One way minorities can be helped in making the transition into the workplace is the vocational alternative high school. Gordon & Friedenberg (1988) give examples of some alternative high schools, such as the School of Cooperative Technical Education in New York which offers special services to Limited English Proficient (LEP) students with vocational interests. At this school, vocational classes are taught to students for two hours per day in either the morning or evening, with the times being structured around the student's regular high school classes at participating or "feeder" high schools. This institution also offers vocational-only training to adults from the community. Some of the special services the school offers are counseling and job placement. They also offer LEP support services such as bilingual vocational shop assistants and ESOL (English for Speakers of Other Languages).

Two other examples these authors give are the Chinatown Resources Development Center (CRDC) in San Francisco and the Vocational Refugee Program in New York City.

The CRDC stresses office occupational training for LEP Chinese-speaking individuals from various countries. With a full-day curiculum, they also offer counseling, assistance in job placement, and training in job seeking and job readiness skills. English language assistance is also available.

The Vocational Refugee Program works in affiliation with the Chinatown Manpower Project. The population mainly served are refugees from Cambodia and Vietnam. The type of skills training available is clerical for the most part.

Authors Gordon and Friedenberg (1988) state that vocational and technically-oriented alternative high schools are especially useful in helping recent Asian immigrants. These youth often express a preference for learning a trade over an academic degree, and commonly come to this country already in possession of vocational skills such as dress-making, embroidery, cooking, construction, mechanics and agriculture.

Native American Community-Based Education and Programs

Self-determination or empowerment is currently a cogent theme among various Native American groups. Empowerment movements, such as Alaska's Spirit Movement are gaining in popularity. This trend has implications in the area of transition for indigenous Americans and others. The tribal college is one example.

Tribally controlled and chartered, there are currently 24 such colleges located on Indian reservations throughout the U.S., with others planned. Altogether, approximately 10,000 Indians are being served by tribal universities. Most are two-year institutions, although two have four-year programs and one offers graduate work.

Paramount in the ideology and configuration of these schools are Native American values and convictions, and these are incorporated throughout the entire curriculum. Courses are taught from an Indian perspective. This would be in keeping with Pottinger's 1989 research mentioned earlier in this paper. Lipka (1989) reports that there are often problematic situations in the development and teaching of "culturally relevant curriculum" though since this curriculum is often developed by the predominant cultural group and not the minority group it serves. As he pointed out in his 1989 report on Yu'pik Eskimos in Alaska, an adult Eskimo of the community stated, "...if Kass'at (White people) teach our culture to the students, then what if left for us? Our culture belongs to the community."

Lipka also suggests that the community should be not so much seen as a resource for the school, but that the school be seen as a resource for the community. In this way, the community may confer increased legitimacy on schools, thereby establishing a process of mutual interdependence between schools and community. This viewpoint is borne out by the tribal college. Boyer (1990) remarks that the tribal colleges go a step beyond the normal university in that they are dedicated to providing services to their surrounding community in an effort towards community improvement. Job training related directly to local or reservation-based companies is one example. Local work experience programs, student volunteer work in tribal agencies and cooperative programs between Indian and non-Indian colleges are further illustrations.

Boyer (1990) states, "...these tribal colleges are offering their own (Indian) nations a level of opportunity and self-respect that decades of federally managed programs have not been able to duplicate."

The tribal colleges are not without problems, however. Interested readers are encouraged to explore issues further in the recommendations for further reading at this chapter's conclusion.

Lipka (1989) makes some important comments and suggestions relating to

Native-community based education. He cautions us to keep in mind that in many minority communities, the people are in a process of attempting to determine their own political agenda. Even though education may not be at the forefront of these concerns, sensitive issues of self-determination can soon become apparent with possible resulting problems, when innovations are initiated independently. Schools in Native communities must follow the lead of the community in areas of social and cultural significance. The school should recognize and confer legitimacy on the minority issues that the community is addresing.

When discussing community-based education, issues such as lack of trust, control and power define this relationship. Suggestions Lipka makes for effective community-based educational settings are:

1. Connect the formal school system to the informal social system.
2. Develop community-university partnerships.
3. Encourage the community to use the school as a resource.
4. Expand the scope and breadth of the curriculum by reevaluation, renewal and open dialogue between school and community. One Native comment in Alaska was, "It is a dream to think that the curriculum can reflect what is of concern to us.

Tiospaye Teca, which in the Sioux language means "Young Families," is involved with helping Indian teen parents. They are based out of Rapid City, South Dakota.

In addition to services relating to parenting, nutrition and health care, Tiospaye Teca has a strong educational and work component. They stress that teen parents stay in school, and the program attempts to help them

towards this goal.

Their Career Learning Center's Displaced Homemaker/Single Parent Program helps teens identify job skills and furnishes educational services.

Tiospaye Teca sponsors a summer employment program teaching job skills and good work attitudes via classes and on-the- job training.

In addition, they work with other community agencies to help bring about not only healthy and positive teen parents and families, but educated and employed ones as well.

SUMMARY

Little direct research exists concerning cross-cultural transition, yet it is a well established fact that minority-ethnic and indigenous Native American populations do not fare as well as White in areas of education and employment, therefore not achieving the same economic levels and standard of living as the dominant society. There are a number of hypotheses and explanations that attempt to account for this trend, but researchers are not in complete agreement on the issue.

Youth of ethnic-minority and Native American populations could benefit from help at the transitional level from high school into post-secondary education and the world of work. A successful transition at this point in their lives could make all the difference in equalizing opportunities for eventual overall economic betterment as adults.

Transition service delivery generally conforms to one of the four following models: Curriculum Content, Instructional Stage, Articulation and Communication and Supportive Service. There are numerous examples within these frameworks.

Youth from ethnic minorities and aboriginal societies who also have physical, developmental, learning, psychological or behavioral disabilities are even further at-risk in the area of transition. These groups need more effective Special Education service delivery and (where applicable) better vocational rehabilitation (VR) services.

It is to the benefit of the Nation as a whole that services to ethnic-minority and Native American youth be enhanced at the transitional level and that cross-cultural transition be legitimized, funded, improved and researched.

CONCLUSION

Establishment and effective delivery of transition services for ethnic-minorities and Limited English Proficient (LEP) populations constitutes an issue of real concern in the United States.

This paper has attempted to give but a brief overview of some of the issues relating to this topic which, due to its wide scope, touches all of us in some way and encompasses many professions and academic disciplines.

Philosophically, we pride ourselves on being a nation built on an enormously wide range of cultural diversity--a democracy where all men are free and have equal opportunity, yet, this premise appears to be an idealistic view of how we want to be and not a realistic conception of how we really are.

Further research is sorely needed and would be of inestimable value, for as Cargile and Woods (1988) state, "The costs of maintaining and supporting the potential underclass generation that could result from a cohort that is unprepared to compete socially, economically, politically, or educationally in our society are far greater than the costs of the alternative."

RECOMMENDATIONS

Literally pages could be written on the recommendations to assist transition for cultural minorities. The following are but a few:

1. Culturally-revelant curriculum, tests and assessment procedures.
2. More minority and bilingual teachers and counselors.
3. Interagency collaboration and networking.
4. Parent education programs and resource centers.
5. School psychologist and teacher interraction concerning needs of minority students.
6. Transition assistance centers and planning guides (Lowry, 1990).
7. Vocational and career-based high schools and curriculum where appropriate, especially for students who already have marketable skills.
8. A hands-on approach in curriculum to cut through language barriers.
9. An emphasis on the high school diploma or equivalent for all youth of minority ethnic populations.
10. An emphasis on the types of classes requisite for entrance into college where appropriate.
11. Teacher and staff programs to educate them about the cultures of the students they work with.
12. Better identification proceedures to distinguish those students who have need of Special Education services from those who are experiencing culturally-based problems only.
13. Continued development and funding of schools, services and programs that stress transition help for minorities.
14. Establish transition tracking procedures.
15. Further research in the area of cross-cultural transition.

FOR FURTHER READING

For more information on tribal colleges, read the Carnegie Foundation's report, Tribal Colleges: Shaping the Future of Native America, by Paul Boyer. A copy is available for $8.00 from Princeton University Press, 3175 Princeton Pike, Lawrenceville, N. J. 08648.

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APPENDIX A

To clarify the term minorities from a U.S. cultural standpoint for the reader, the following divisions are noted. Pottinger (1989) gives us the first two:

Involuntary Minority

Brought to this country by conquest or colonization.
Example—Blacks.

Autonomous Minority

Those retaining a distinct identity while fully participating in American society.
Example—Jews.

Immigrants

Those who have left another country (for whatever reason) and have settled in the U.S.
Example—Vietnamese.

Illegal Alien

Residing and/or working in the U.S., but owing political allegiance to another country or government.
Example—illegal Mexican workers.

Indigenous, Aboriginal, Native Populations

Those original inhabitants of our country.
Example—American Indians and Alaska Natives (Eskimo and Aleut).

Naturalized Citizen

One who is of foreign birth but has become a citizen of the U.S. through specified, legal methods.

Expatriate

One who has been forced or has willingly chosen to live in another country, often renouncing the citizenship of birth.

Green Card Holder

One who holds temporary and legal permission to be in the U.S. for purposes of work and residence.

LEGAL ASPECTS OF TRANSITION TO EMPLOYMENT AND INDEPENDENT LIVING FOR INDIVIDUALS WITH DISABILITIES

By Stanley L. Swartz, Ph. D.

The importance of the transition from public school education programs to appropriate postsecondary experiences for individuals with disabilities and the necessary support services to successfully accomplish this transition has an evolution that can be traced through public policy reflected in legislation and the resultant changing professional practices. That the individualized education program must now include a specific statement of the needed transition services is a result of a process that has included a research base demonstrating that the absence of such planning diminishes the likelihood of student success (Individuals with Disabilities Education Act [IDEA], 1990). Additionally, political activism directed toward establishing the need for a follow along plan for all children with disabilities has resulted in legislation that ensures a continuum of services for persons with disabilities throughout their lives (Americans with Disabilities Act [ADA]. 1990 , and IDEA, 1990).

LEGISLATIVE HISTORY

The need for transition services has been recognized and the need addressed in Special Education, vocational education, and rehabilitation legislation. Culminating in P. L. 94-142; the Carl Perkins Vocational Education Act, and the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, and refined in the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act and the Americans with Disabilities Act, a summary of this history is instructive to the understanding of changing public attitudes and awareness and changing public policy. Table 1 lists legislation that has played a major role in the development of the concept of transition. Though much of this legistlation has an extensive history, emphasis has been placed on those that are contemporary.

Special Education

Education of the Handicapped Act of 1970 (Public Law 91-230):

Though limited attention to those with disabilities had begun to appear in general education legislative authority, this act represented a major expansion of programs. For the first time, significant federal funding was made available to the state through a grant-in-aid program, to encourage the identification of children with disabilities and the development of Special Education programs to meet their needs.

EHA Amendments of 1974 (Public Law 93-380):

These amendments included language that would specify programming for the full range of children with disabilities; "... provide full educational opportunity to all handicapped children" (EHA Amendments, 601[1], 1974). As the major underpinning of P. L. 94-142, P. L. 93-380 required states to identify the Special Education needs of all children with disabilities and devise a plan for providing full educational opportunities to these children.

Education of All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 (Public Law 94-142):

This landmark legislation required that children with disabilities have available to them a free, appropriate public education and protected the rights of those children and their parents to procedural due process and safeguards in the evaluation and placement process. Central to this legislation, was making increased federal funds available to the states for the purposes of assuring the implementation of this law. Additionally, and key to the eventual recognition of the need for transition services, was the provision that the effectiveness of these programs be evaluated.

P. L. 94-142 marked the first consideration that Special Education programs for those with disabilities were a right, and therefore mandated. Two key provisions of the law were the Individualized Education Program (IEP), which paved the way for the provision of transition services, and the LRE, which provided for the least restrictive environment. The IEP is a planning document that assures an appropriate education that is outcome-based. LRE is a requirement that children with disabilities be integrated with their nondisabled peers. The law also targeted two nontraditional populations for service; preschool and the 18-21 age group.

EHA Amendments of 1983 - Secondary Education and Transitional Services for Handicapped Youth (Public Law 98-199):

This law specifically addressed the need to coordinate the education and training of youth with disabilities to assist in the transitional process from school to employment and postsecondary education. Major emphases

included the design of vocational programs to increase the potential of youth with disabilities for competitive employment and to encourage the development of cooperative training models between educational agencies and adult service agencies. This law marked the emergence of the transition process as a major focus in programs for children with disabilities.

EHA Amendments of 1986 (Public Law 99-457):

A number of important revisions in secondary education and transitional services were included in these amendments. Programs were expanded not only for those who could be served, but also the nature of the services to be provided was elucidated. Services could now be provided to children recently graduated or exited from the public schools. Transition itself was reconceptualized as a theme of programming throughout a child's school career even though it has as its purpose, the transition to adult life.

Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (formerly Education of the Handicapped Act) (Public Law 101-476):

These amendments expand the concept of transition to include independent living and full participation of youth with disabilities in community programs, as appropriate goals. This represents a movement from education as a means to competitive employment to a broader goal of full community integration. Transition services are defined as a "coordinated set of activities for a student, designed within an outcome-oriented process, which promotes movement from school to post-school activities, including post-secondary education, vocational training, integrated employment (including supported employment), continuing and adult education, adult services, independent living, or community participation" (IDEA Amendments, 101 [d] [19],1990). Requirements for IEP development require a statement of needed transition services by age 19 (or 14 when appropriate) and any necessary interagency responsibilities after school exit. Programs are expanded to address the development of job skills for transition to the workplace, and independent living and community skills to enable youth to participate fully in commnity life.

Vocational Education

Carl Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1984 (Public Law 98-524):

This act allocated federal funds for equipment, staff and buildings. Ten percent of funds available under this act were earmarked for students with disabilities and 22 percent for the disadvantaged. This act ammended the Vocational Education Act and provided for 1) Assessment of interests and abilities related to vocational education programs; 2) Special services, including adaptation of curriculum, instruction, equipment and facilities; 3) Guidance, counseling and career development activities conducted by professionally- trained counselors; and 4) Counseling services designed to facilitate the transition from school to postschool employment opportunities.

By its very inclusion in Carl Perkins, vocational education for those with disabilities was legitimized. The focus of programming from education in the traditional academic sense to programs that emphasized employment and functioning needed for adult life, was made possible with the requirement that a portion of the funds authorized under this act be reserved for use by programs designed to benefit those with disabilities.

Vocational Rehabilitation Amendments of 1968 (Public Law 90-391):

Building on a long history of the progressive expansion of services to persons with disabilities, this law marked the major entry into training those with disabilities for competitive employment. Though earlier establishment of sheltered workshops had employment as a goal, this legislation placed efforts in integrated community settings.

Rehabilitation Act of 1973 (Public Law 93-112):

This law provided the statutory foundation for the Rehabilitation Services Administration and 1)Established priority for rehabilitation services to those with the most severe disabilities; 2)Initiated expansion of programs for individuals previously underserved, including homebound and institutionalized clients; 3) Expanded employment opportunities forthose with disabilities; 4) Eliminated architectural and transportation barriers impeding citizens with disabilities; 5) Required a written rehabilitation plan with an annual review for each individual with a disability which outlines the conditions and responsibilities under which services will be provided; 6) Funded research and demonstration projects concerned with the rehabilitation of those with severe disabilities; and 7) Section 504 prohibited discrimination of an individual solely by reason of his disability, in any program or activity receiving federal funds (Gargiulo, 1980).

Important to the eventual emphasis on transition for school-age children was the inclusion of education for children with disabilities as one of the major features of the act. Children to be served by the public schools were guaranteed similar protections as adults served by rehabilitation and other service agencies. P. L. 94-142 was specifically referenced in the language of the law. This inclusion of school-age children in the language of the act set the stage for the eventual coordination of services of various agencies because of the wide authority of this act.

Rehabilitation, Comprehensive Services, and Developmental Disabilities Amendments of 1978 (P. L. 95-602):

This act continued and enlarged the three main trends in the history of rehabilitation legislation: a) It increased the commitment to rehabilitation research by expanding its research provisions and by stipulating the need and the means for insuring coordination in the research enterprise; b) It continued the movement from a focus on preparation for employment to a focus on preparation plus affirmative action for enlarging opportunities for competitive employment for individuals with disabilities; and c) It continued the attempt to provide services to underserved populations, especially those with the most severe disabilities and those with developmental disabilities (DeStefano & Snauwaert, 1989).

Programs that required an affirmative action-type push were encouraged by this act. Transition at its inception was this type of an effort. This act authorized the use of funds to provide a variety of support mechanisms that allowed transition programs to be mounted.

Rehabilitation Act Amendments of 1983 (Public Law 98-221):

Authorized demonstration projects to provide transition services for youth with disabilities. These funds encouraged innovative attempts to insure that services initiated under Special Education authority did not lapse for students exiting programs. This act extended considerably the initiatives authorized under the 1978 Amendments. Programs specifically designed as transition efforts were funded in large numbers.

Rehabilitation Act Amendments of 1986 (Public Law 99-506):

Notable changes in the act include the use of supported employment (defined as employment in an integrated setting with ongoing support services) as an acceptable outcome for the VR (vocational rehabilitation) program (Braddock & Fujiura, 1988).

Much of the historical emphasis of state rehabilitation agencies had been in rehabilitation that resulted in almost total independence of functioning for clients. This had the obvious effect of excluding serious efforts on behalf of individuals with moderate and severe disabilities. This act recognized as legitimate and authorized funding for services that were supportive in nature and expected to be ongoing. Much of what we now provide as transition programming is authorized in this act.

The Americans with Disabilities Act of 1990 (Public Law 101-336):

This Federal civil rights legislation bars job discrimination against those with physical or mental disabilities. Access for those with disabilities to mass transportation, public buildings, and transportation and government services has also been assured (Baird, 1990). This act is considered an important extension of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, because of the dramatically increased number of employers (those employing more than 15) that are affected. This act is seen as the last step in a process designed to insure the integration of individuals with disabilities into the mainstream of American society. Any effort or program that could assist in the integration is authorized under this act. The recognition that many individuals with disabilities will need support throughout their lives is carefully included in the provisions of the law Transition that is initiated under laws governing Special Education in the public schools has as its obvious goal, the support of programs in keeping with the provisions of this initiative.

Employment-Related Legislation

Much related legislation could be reviewed that includes provisions affecting the employment of individuals with disabilities. The impact of rehabilitation legislation was such that most federal initiatives began to include specific language that included consideration of the special needs of people with disabilities.

Job Training Partnership Act of 1982 (Public Law 97-300):

This act was designed to shift training away from the public sector to the private. Individuals with disabilities are targeted as a special population for services under this act. Incentives were made available to employers to accomodate persons with disabilities in community-based employment settings.

Supplemental Security Income Improvement Act of 1986 (Public Law 99-643):

This act removed work disincentives by allowing recipients to work without loss of benefits. Participation in a variety of training programs (including supported employment) could now take place while still receiving income assistance. The new flexibility included in the act removed the perception that one federal agency was an adversary to the goal of independence and integration for those with disabilities. Though most legislation is designed as government influence over the private sector, the revisions made in Social Security are a good example of the new public attitude regarding the value of employment opportunities for individuals with disabilities.

Taken together, these pieces of legislation chart the evolution of programming for people with disabilities from that restricted to a parallel of regular education programs, to programs and services that insure a continuum beginning in the public schools and extending to community integration. Such a movement was a public

recognition of the need to coordinate efforts on behalf of those with disabilities, as various governmental agencies assumed responsibility for service provision.

It is important to remember that new initiatives built into legislation do not develop in isolation. Research demonstrating program efficacy and professional practice that evolves because of field-based experiences are important to the ultimate recognition that change is needed. One good example of this influence can be seen in the review of the Education for the Handicapped Act implementation mandated by Congress. In both the 1989 and 1990 reports, the need and importance of transition to the eventual success of students as adults is highlighted.

Eleventh (1989]) & Twelfth (1990]) Annual Reports to Congress:

The 1989 report provided the results of a longitudinal study of students with disabilities which included a record of their occupation, educational, and independent living status after graduating from secondary school or otherwise exiting Special Education. Much of this data was used to continue to make the case that funding for transition programs will produce an effective benefit for youth with disabilities, including the information that less than half of these students are employed.

The 1990 report continued this theme by advancing the case for a reconsideration of coursework type (academic vs vocational) with the conclusion that academic courses that produced skills important to the transition to adult life, and vocational training that emphasized skill development directed to the existing realities of the workaday world would be the most likely to benefit secondary-age students with disabilities. An information flow of this kind demonstrates the impact on public policy that can be affected by the profession. That legislation specifically incorporates this data, is a testament to the process.

CONCEPTUAL CONFLUENCE

Many of the concepts included in legislation affecting those people with disabilities have evolved in a variety of similar ways. These similarities include:

1. The definition of "handicapped" has been made more inclusive.
2. Those with severe disabilities and underserved groups have been specifically targeted.
3. Programs are designed to be outcome-based.
4. Services are to be provided in the least restrictive environment.
5. Services should be provided that will insure the effective transition from school to work and the community.
6. A clear recognition that children with disabilities usually become adults with disabilities has become recognized, and that programming must be coordinated between agencies that serve children and those that serve adults.

Special Education legislation extended a mandatory public education opportunity to include planning and programs to insure a successful transition from educational experiences to successful community integration that includes meaningful employment. Vocational education legislation was repealed and the replacing Carl Perkins Act included specific provisions for the inclusion of special groups; in particular, individuals with disabilities. Legislative authority for rehabilitation moved from federal incentive programs to landmark civil rights legislation. Interagency cooperation was also recognized as a necessary component of a successful transition. Other related legislation also recognized the necessity and importance of employment to eventual community integration. Both job training legislation and social security authority made specific provisions to accommodate individuals with disabilities. Such a confluence of legislation and obvious similarity in language was grounded in a growing body of professional literature and recognition by individuals interested in influencing public policy.

Much of the emphasis of current legislative authority has developed from a growing research base indicating the need for coordination of agencies serving those with disabilities. The National Council on Disability (1989) summarized these findings in developing recommendations for the development of a national policy. The recommendations issued by this group included many of the elements that had gained recognition as needs that must be addressed to affect the transition fom school to adult life. Their findings included: 1) That upon leaving school, students with disabilities and their families have a difficult time accessing appropriate adult services; 2) Effective transition planning for high school students with disabilities can facilitate their success in adult life; 3) Graduates with disabilities are more likely to be employed following school if comprehensive vocational training is a primary component of their high school propgram and they have a job secured at the time of graduation; 4) There are insufficient partnerships between the business community and schools for the purpose of enhancing employment opportunities for students with disabilities, and parent participation during high school facilitates the successful transition of students with disabilities from school to adult life. This group had access to the same data that influenced much of the legislative authority that governs transition programs. A majority of what was reviewed by this group has been incorporated into current legislation. This group added a strong voice to those that have suggested that the public schools need

to take a longer view of what programs are most useful to the children with disabilities that they serve. The need to reconsider the preeminent position of the academic program can certainly be implied from the work of this group.

COMMUNITY INTEGRATION ISSUES

An expanded conceptualization of transition and transition services includes a number of considerations necessary for independent living and community participation. The objective is to achieve legitimate adult status for all individuals with disabilities. Luckasson (1988) has identified four general areas important to successful transition that have notable legal implications. In addition to employment, independent living arrangements, the financial independence that comes with employment, developing family relationships, and exercising the prerogatives of citizenship are all traditional indices of the transition to adulthood.

Suitable living arrangements are a logical extension of the principles of normalization and the educationally least restrictive environment. The location of housing for people with developmental disabilities was addressed in the Cleburne case (1985) and the inappropriate consideration of developmental disabilities in zoning laws has resulted in states and communities handling group homes for those with disabilities as they would any other family-like residence.

Some level of financial independence will come with employment. The legal issue of contracts and the ability to enter into a contractual agreement can emerge when one party has a disability. Though the issues are complex, it will be important to determine whether those individuals with disabilities understand the concept of property, have an understanding of their assets, and have a basic understanding of the obligations that accompany a contract.

Family relationships, in particular, marriage and procreation, continue as issues of some controversy when individuals with disabilities are involved. Though both are appropriately considered Fourteenth Amendment issues, the question of competency can still be brought before a court. Is the individual with a disability capable of the consent needed to marry or participate in a marriage relationship that might include children? There is a long history in the United States of interference in the lives of persons with disabilities under the guise of protection. As the rights of those with disabilities continue towards assertion of a full adult status, it is likely that more acceptance of marriage and family that includes those with disabilities will be realized.

The other major issue reviewed by Luckasson is the one of citizenship, and in particular, voting. Because voting is considered such an important American right, any denial of this opportunuity should be looked at seriously by state government. Though many states restrict the right of those with mental disabilities to vote, there is little apparent enforcement. Given the broad spectrum of our society and the variation in levels of ability within the general populace, there appears to be very little purpose in excluding individuals with mental disabilities from participating in this adult function. Only those with the most severe limitations might legitimately be excluded.

The overriding issue of consent is one that still has not been entirely resolved. How can we assure that individuals with disabilities have appropriately participated in decisions regarding their adult status? The consent issue has been dealt with extensively in the profession (Turnbull et al., 1977). The standard to be applied in this situation might be to use the least restrictive principle, similar to that used for other service provision questions. Independent decision-making by those people with disabilities, consistent with adult status, could be the standard. Shared consent (where consent is shared with the disabled individual and family or guardian) or full guardianship (where the decision is made solely by the guardian) could be used only when independence in the process is found to be ineffective or unworkable.

There is a need for these issues related to full adult status to be an integral part of the education and training program for people with disabilities throughout their career. Advocacy for this population would do well to include a consideration of all issues that will affect their ability to participate in integrated community settings.

SUMMATION

The focus on transition represents an important milestone in the history of efforts to serve people with disabilities. Past efforts were basically designed to guarantee access. Current efforts focus on the outcomes of Special Education. Do our efforts result in the successful integration of individuals with disabilities into the adult world? Do public school programs target eventual adult status and community participation? Have agencies with programming responsibility for this population developed agreements that will insure unbroken service during the transition from school to work and community living?

Though the recognition that Special Education should be evaluated from an outcome-based perspective is generally held in the profession, the concept of transition and what should be emphasized in transition efforts is still the subject of some debate. Clark and Knowlton (1988) advocate that the goals of transition should include not

TABLE 1

Legislation Affecting Transition Year	1968	1970	1973	1974	1975	1976	1982	1983	1986	1990
Special Education		EHA 91-230		93-380	EAHC 94-142			98-199	99-457	IDEA 101-476
Vocational Education								98-524		
Rehabilitation	90-391		Rehab Act 93-112			95-602		98-221	99-506	ADA 101-336
Employment Related							JTPA 97-300		SSI 99-643	

only employment, but independent living and social outcomes. Rusch and Menchetti (1988) have criticized this position as one that is contrary to the position of the federal government (outlined by Will in 1984), who defined transition as a school-to-work effort. They indicate that "To focus on other outcomes, in our opinion, would dilute Will's transition initiative and probably would not substantially change the quality of life for persons with disabilities. Transition must continue to focus on the development of sound practices in the context of employment" (Rusch & Menchetti, 1988). Clark and Knowlton (1988) respond to this statement with the position that social skill development should use all available vehicles and be addressed in all settings. They are also critical of too much reliance on one person (such as Will) or agency to define the limitations of transition.

This debate demonstrates that attempts to define transition and the most appropriate transition efforts are fluid and still evolving. An analysis using a legislative context perspective would favor the argument advanced by Clark and Knowlton. Legislative efforts in Special Education and rehabilitation have emphasized the importance of interagency cooperation and a lifespan view of handicapped individuals. Any efforts to restrict what Special Education should do or the position that some efforts might distract or dilute our impact, flies in the face of the holistic perspectiove that has emerged in legislation. It could be effectively argued that this perspective has historically obstructed the transition from school to the adult world. The securing gainful employment and the rest will follow position is a mirror of what many believe would be the benefits of attaining academic skills. Program planners should be encouraged to consider all aspects of the successful transition to adult society of persons with disabilities. A perspective that insists that all contexts and all settings be part of transition efforts is in keeping with current law and legislative initiatives.

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A "SPECIAL NEEDS" JOB DEVELOPER

By Carol Gentili and Ann Vessey, M. A.

It has been 15 years since the passage of PL94-142 which entitled all students to a free and appropriate public education. "Special Needs Students" as defined by the California Education Code are those students who are identified as being developmentally disabled, having hearing or visual disabilities (or a combination of both), having orthopedic, speech, specific learning, or serious emotional disabilities, or those with multiple disabilities or other health impairments, who, because of those impairments, need Special Education and related services. There has become an increased awareness for the need of vocational programs for these students. Vocational courses and programs in and of themselves, however, have not lead to the successful transition from school to the adult world of work for students with special needs. The California State Department of Education defines "Transition" as, "... a purposeful, organized, and out-come oriented process designed to help 'at-risk' students move from school to employment and a quality adult life" (Dougan, 1988).

Successful transition in California has been facilitated via the usage of job developers. Job developers in this instance are individuals whose focus is the successful placement of students into appropriate employment prior to exiting the school system. The purpose of this paper is to define job developer's roles, including job preparation, job search, and job maintenance.

A job developer assists in completing a student's vocational program. This person plays an integral part in satisfying the requirements of PL9 8-524, which mandates that each handicapped and disadvantaged student who enrolls in vocational education programs receive counseling services designed to facilitate their transition from school to post-school employment and career opportunities (VERS, 1984). Pre-screening interviews provide the initial information necessary to begin job preparation, job search and job maintenance.

WHAT IS JOB PREPARATION?

Research has indicated that there are eight essential employability skills necessary as part of job preparation to be successful (California State Department of Education, 1984):

Skill 1 - INFORMATION GATHERING

For many students, the personal information necessary to complete an employment application is difficult to remember. This information needs to be clear, concise and organized. The use of personal data sheets, fact cards and other such assists will help to refresh a student's memory when presented with an application.

Skill 2 - EMPLOYMENT APPLICATION

Students must make a good impression every time they fill out a job application. Here's how to do it :

Follow instructions carefully
Answer every question
Find out what all abbreviations mean
Spell everything correctly
Use black or blue ink only
Read everything before filling in the blanks
Carry your 3X5 personal facts cards with you
Be neat! Print when it says to, don't cross out words or smudge the application

(Baer, 1986).

Skill 3 - RESUMES

A resume can also be used as a personlal infor mation sheet to help students obtain a job. The role of a resume is to provide an employer with information that may or may not be an application, as well as an introduction for an interview (Appendix A).

Skill 4 - GROOMING SKILLS AND APPROPRIATE DRESS

Lack of proper care in dressing and grooming may inhibit students socially and professionally. Students can learn proper techniques by watch ing role models and also participating in role play situations. Using a checklist to assess appearance prior to an interview is one way to assist students:

Checklist for Men	Checklist for Women
Hair	Hair
Face	Face
Hands and nail	Hands and nails
Suit (and tie)	Dress
Shoes	Shoes
	Hosiery
	Accessories: handbag, perfume, jewelry

(See EDD, 1983; Appendix B) pg.2

Skill 5 - APPROPRIATE BEHAVIOR

If students display inappropriate behavior, a be havior modification plan must begin prior to job search. Socially, employers are looking for prospective employees who possess a positive attitude, have a good attendance record and are punctual (Appendix C).

Skill 6 - TRANSPORTATION

A major barrier to employment for students is lack of transportation. The use of independent transportation, public transportation, car-pooling, bike riding and other methods of transportation can be investigated. Developing a regular, reliable method of transportation along with several reasonable emergency alternatives must be stressed to students.

Skill 7 - TELEPHONE ETIQUETTE AND TECHNIQUES

It is important to be able to communicate clearly when using the telephone. Students may require role playing and/or recording of their practice phone conversations in order to critique their telephone skills. Times when it is appropriate to call an employer (for example, illness, tardiness, schedule verification) should be stressed with the student.

Skill 8 - INTERVIEWS

There are several things that employers look for in the applicant that he must convey during the interview. They include:

1. Ability to do the job
2. Ability to get along with others
3. Knowledge of the job
4. Dependability
5. Ability to fit company image, both on and off the job
6. Few personal and environmental problems

(Prazak and Walker, 1968)

Students can learn successful interviewing skills through the use of role play, mock interviews and video tapes.

WHAT IS JOB SEARCH?

Once interest and ability areas have been defined and job preparation complete, the actual process of seeking employment can begin. In order to match students to suitable employers, a job developer should establish a strong link to the community. A structured and formal linkage is essential for at least three reasons:

First, local business representatives, if used appropriately, can be a major help to school officials in determining the marketability of the Special Education curricula. Members of the business community should be asked to assess how useful the school curriculum is in terms of vocational planning and outcomes, Second, businesses can provide training sites in all types of occupations and industries. Finally, since business is where students will work after leaving school, the better businesses and schools understand each other, the more successful those job placements will be (Wehman, 1990).

Once those ties have been established with community members, a successful, well organized program or situation may speak for itself. When a good record of successful placement and cost effectiveness for the employer is met, word of mouth may be a job developer's best sales pitch for transitioning students. Communities vary in opportunities available in entry-level positions, and the local job market is the focal point for most job developers. "Community linkages are necessary for job developers, for they provide information about vacancies in positions, gain entrance into various job sites, and further communication with co-workers and ability to conduct local surveys" (Rusch and Mithoug, 1980).

Most areas have at least one, if not several community based organizations which may be of exceptional use to a job developer, such as the Chamber of Commerce, Rotary Club, Lions' Club, city and county recreation departments, etc.

Along with business linkages, cooperative efforts among state agencies are also necessary for job development. The following state agencies are usually located in regional areas and can serve students' needs: Department of Developmental Services, Department of Rehabilitation, Employment Development Department, Employment Training Agency, Job Corps, Private Industry Councils, Regional Center, Social Security Administration. These cooperative agencies for transition programs provide major sources of information for private and public sector jobs.

Once linkages have been established, the job developer begins actual one-on-one job search with the student. This is accomplished by matching students to employer needs.

Many agencies are divided into several services. Job training may be one service provided in which the student is actually instructed in areas relative to job skill preparation. In some instances, even a G.E.D. computer training class may be available.

Personal counseling to assist in job skills and maintenance may be another area where services are rendered.

Another type of job placement involves incentives provided to employers in the form of wages or tax reimbursements. The following are examples of Targeted Job

Tax Credit (TJTC): Vocational rehabilitation referrals, economically disadvantaged youths, economically disadvantaged Vietnam veterans, supplemental secority income recipients, general assistance recipients, youths participating in cooperative education programs, economically disadvantaged ex-convicts, eligible work incentives employees and qualified youth summer employees (Dougan and Kaney, 1988).

ON THE JOB TRAINING (OJT)

This program pays all or a portion of a student's wages during an interim period in which the training is provided at the work-site of an employer.

WorkAbility I, which pays a student's wages for an agreed upon period of time with a private sector employer, enables an employer to observe a student's ability to do a specific entry-level job.

A "Job Ready" student describes a student who is ready for employment and trained in job preparation skills. This is a non-financial incentive for an employer.

A "Job Coach" is a helper available for students who may need assistance in learning a particular job skill (Appendix E).

Local Education Agencies (LEA'S) and cooperative agencies working together provide a bridge for the student to cross from school to the world of work.

There are many other resources for finding entry-level employment for Students With Special Needs, and these include: newspapers, private employment agencies, civil service jobs, school placement offices, telephone directories, teachers, industrial parks, religious groups, national organizations, insurance agents, banks, bulletin boards, commercial areas, trade publications, manufacturers, suppliers, relatives, friends, former employers, ex-teachers, public libraries, neighbors, customers, competitors, YMCA or YWCA, unions, distributors and trade associations.

As job developers develop greater contacts with community organizations, advisory groups and members of the business and industry sector, they essentially operate in the underused channels of job information and avoid excessive competition from other job applicants for jobs (Brolin and Kokaska, 1979). The following are some examples of both used and underused sources of job leads:

Commonly Used Sources

Newspaper want ads
State Employment Service
Private employment agencies
Help wanted signs
Unions
Yellow pages
Trade publications
Civil Service bulletins
Business pages of newspaper
Employers who have hired clients

Underused Sources

Past employers
Past clients
Counselor's acquaintances
Employers cited by employers who have hired clients
Counselor co-workers
Service persons
Client family and friends
Workers at business
(Zadny and James, 1976).

These resources may be used in a variety of ways. The initial contact with an employer may be by letter of introduction to the company with an explanation about the program, or it may be what is defined as a "cold call", either by telephone or in person to explain the program or set up an appointment to do so. When contacting employers, job developers may make errors. Some of the more common ones are: Talking to the wrong staff person, bringing up objections before the employer does, overselling your school, students, services or yourself, talking too much and talking at the employer, rather than with the employer, listening too little and interrupting too much, using Special Education jargon, not being organized or well-prepared, not establishing a goal or purpose for your call, failing to leave a business card, overemphasizing placement and de-emphasizing other school services, not being a real person or allowing the ermployer to be, failing to follow-up after making contact, siding with either management or labor, being impulsive, impertinent or condescending, not knowing when to "back off", and demonstrating a lack of self-confidence.

Once a potential job site has been found, there are steps required for documentation. These steps are often called a "work site analysis". The information gathered is vital in matching a potential student to that particular work site or business. The documentation will include information about work environment, tasks to be completed, conditions of employment, and work requirements (Rusch and Mithaug, 1980).

The most common ways to complete this analysis is to interview the person who will be the direct supervisor, talk to a current employee who is doing the task, observe the interractions of employees and work environment, or actually do the job yourself (Appendix D).

The job match with the student will be much more

thorough and easy when the process is complete. Once the job developer makes a good job match, he develops, in most cases, a good rapport with the employer. This often allows him future potential to work with this employer again. Using the worksite analysis, the job developer must ask some of the following questions: Can the employer use the student's entry-level skills? Does he/she typically hire youth? Does the student have high employment potential? Will the employer train the student in skuills that are transferable? Does this job have potential for mobility within industry, business, or labor market? (VERS, 1984)

The majob benefit in forming a good relationship (aside from the obvious benefit of jobs for Students with Special Needs) is the subtle change in attitude which occurs when employers, job developers and students are placed in a partnership, rather than a "charity" relationship. Central to the strategy, is the concept that employers begin to see students who have special needs as individuals (VERS, 1984).

WHAT IS JOB MAINTAINANCE?

Maintaining employment after placement depends upon many factors, most of which are related to consumer satisfaction and the efforts made to ensure that the placement is satisfactory to everybody involved (White and Rusch, 1983).

Follow-up services must be provided to ensure that successful employment is met. Follow-up differs from evaluation in emphasis by assuring maintenance of employable skills by students. Follow-up services after a person has been placed are important for several reasons, including: Early identification of problems, establishment of a follow-up schedule, providing on-the-job intervention, seeking validation by significant others, planning interventions, withdrawing follow-up, and evaluating adjustment (Rusch and Kazdin, 1981).

Regardless of whether or not serious problems occur, follow-up is essential for placing students in competitive employment, and should be adhered to. Employers need continued contact with job developers whether the student is successful or not. Through this contact, job developers are able to maintain strong relationships, adjust work training programs and enlist future business contacts. Students also benefit from follow-up in that a potential problem can be eliminated early. They know someone from the past is still available to assist them, and if new skills need to be learned, assistance will be provided.

As the number of realistic employment or work training opportunities are increased, more and more Special Education students can benefit by successful employment after graduation (Justice, 1988). Thus, a job developer becomes an integral part of a Special Education student's life.

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APPENDIX A

RESUME'

NAME	Jeff
ADDRESS	1301 Sunnyside Anytown, USA 23401
TELEPHONE	(428) 555-5333
OBJECTIVE	I am seeking a part-time job, starting August, 1988, which will prepare me for a career in auto mechanics.
WORK EXPERIENCE	January, 1987 - May, 1988 Dutch Treat Drive-In 222 Holly, Anytown, USA 23401 Prepared all items on the menu; performed general clean-up duties; operated a cash register and waited on customers June, 1986 - January, 1987 Self-employed-general yard work Mowed and edged lawns; watered, sprayed, planted, and pruned shrubs and trees
VOLUNTEER WORK EXPERIENCE	March, 1987 Dennis Williams 2113 Mandella, Anytown, USA 23401 Dug irrigation trenches, dug post holes, strung wire fencing, helped repair barn November, 1986 Dutch Treat Drive-In 222 Holly, Anytown, USA 23401 Assisted owner in moving to a new location
SKILLS	Have good attendance at school and at work; am always prompt; have supervised workers and work well as part of a team; am able to take directions; can use a variety of tools; have experience repairing some small engines and automobiles; good basic skills (reading, math); and take pride in doing a good job
EDUCATION	September, 1987 - Present Attending Anytown High School, Anytown, USA 23401
INTERESTS	Enjoy hiking, camping, fishing, automobile and small engine repair
NOTE	References are included

APPENDIX B-1

"PERSONAL PACKAGING"

YES	NO	
☐	☐	Is my body scent pleasant?
☐	☐	Are my teeth brushed?
☐	☐	Is my breath pleasant?
☐	☐	Are my finger nails clean, trimmed and shaped?
☐	☐	Is my hair appropriately styled and clean?
☐	☐	Is my makeup moderate enough?
☐	☐	Are my clothes clean and pressed?
☐	☐	Is my clothing conservative enough?
☐	☐	Are my shoes moderate in style and color?
☐	☐	Are my shoes brushed?
☐	☐	If wearing one, is my hat or headpiece appropriate?
☐	☐	Have I avoided overdoing baubles, bangles and beads?

If you have answered "no" to any of these questions, weigh carefully whether you want to risk having that item stand between you and a job.

In these days of liberated dress style there is no way that anyone can prescribe an absolute proper dress for this occasion. "Moderation" IS THE KEY! Before you walk out the door, look in your mirror and ask "Would I hire this person?"

APPENDIX B-2

EMPLOYER IMPRESSIONS

PERSONAL APPEARANCE FACTORS

On the line to the left of the personal appearance factor, indicate whether you think the factor has a POSITIVE, NEGATIVE, or NEUTRAL effect on the majority of employment interviewers.

_____ Long hair (men)

_____ Jeans

_____ Jeans (cuffed-women)

_____ Earrings (men)

_____ Necklace (men)

_____ Ankle Bracelets

_____ Neat mustache and/or beard

_____ No shirt or tank tops (men)

_____ No stockings (men or women)

_____ Sport shirt (men)

_____ Beads

_____ Braless

_____ Pantsuits (women)

_____ Jump suit (men)

_____ Sneakers

_____ Thongs

_____ Dark glasses or tinted glasses

_____ Sport coat and tie

_____ No makeup

_____ Chewing gum

_____ Leather hat

_____ "Save the Whales" button

_____ Headwrap (turban)

_____ Tattoos

APPENDIX C

ON-THE-JOB TRAINING EVALUATION

EMPLOYER'S RATING OF WORK EXPERIENCE

Student's Name _____ Job Title _____

Employer or Firm _____ Address _____ Phone _____

Job Supervisor _____ Teacher _____ School _____

RATINGS

Circle the words from each line which best fit your trainee:

TRAIT	OUTSTANDING	GOOD	AVERAGE	NEEDS IMPROVEMENT	UNSATISFACTO
FOLLOWING DIRECTIONS	Quick to learn	Learns well	Learns with instruction	Needs repeated telling	Does not understand
APPEARANCE	Always appropriate for the job	Clean and presentable	Presentable	Barely presentable	Unpresentab for the job
ATTENDANCE	Always at work or prearranced absences	Usually dependable	Misses occasionally	Several absences	Habitual absences
ATTITUDE	Always cooperative & eager to do a good job	Cooperative & willing to learn	Generally cooperative	Reluctant to do more than has to	Uncooperati puts out little effo
COOPERATION	Works well with everyone	Gets along well	Compatible	Occasionally causes problems	Causes problems
DEPENDABILITY	Never needs reminding	Dependable	Usually dependable	Usually needs reminding	Not dependable
INITIATIVE	Eagerly seeks work	Carries out assignments	Works well with supervision	Needs to be told what to do	Needs consta supervision
PERSONALITY	Outgoing and friendly	Friendly	Responsive	Sometimes responsive	Unfriendly
PUNCTUALITY	Always on time	Rarely late	Usually prompt	Frequently late	Habitually late
TASK PERFORMANCE	Efficient	Very good	Acceptable	Poor	Does not perform

GENERAL COMMENTS:

The one major suggestion I could make for this student to be a better worker would be:

_____

Would you recommend this student for employment at this time? Yes___ No___

Date of Evaluation_____ _____

Signature of Employer or Supervisor

APPENDIX D

WORK SITE ANALYSIS DATE:_____

Company Name:_____Phone:_____

Address:_____City:_____Zip:_____

Cross Streets:_____Bus Route:_____

Check One: Full Time (___) Part Time (___) Benefits:_____

1. Application Procedures/Forms:_____

2. Interviews/Contact Person:_____

3. Hiring/Firing Procedures:_____

   a.Final Decision Maker:_____

4. Paperwork Agency and Employer: WKABLTY I(___) Direct Hire(___) OJT(___) TJTC(___)

5. Layout of Site (Identify or locate the following):

   Restrooms:_____Breakrooms:_____

   Parking Regulations:_____Offices:_____

   Time Clock_____Wheelchair Accessible:_____

   Site Accessibility (sidewalk, lighting, crosswalk, stops, bus stop, etc.):_____

   _____

6. Safety Requirements/Concerns:_____

7. Work Schedule: Days_____Hours_____

   a. Will Work: (Seated/Standing) Lifting required (yes/no) & # of Lbs._____

   b. Dexterity Required: (Fine finger/Manual/Bi-Manual/Gross Motor) Other:_____

8. Channel of Communication: (Supervisor, Job Coach)_____

9. Job Description: Title_____Salary_____

   Education_____Special Skills:_____
   Academic Req:(Math/Reading/Writing/Copying/Counting) Other_____
   Co-Workers: Monolingual(__)English(__)Male(__)Female(__)# of Workers:_____

   Other Info:_____

10. Determine Placement Methods: Individual___ Group_____

    a. Job Coach Assigned:_____Task Analysis Attached (Yes) (No)

11. Orientation:_____

Additional Comments:_____

_____(2/91)

APPENDIX E

EMPLOYER INCENTIVE PROGRAMS

PROGRAM	INCENTIVE	RESTRICTIONS	MORE INFORMATION...
Targeted Jobs Tax Credit (TJTC)	Tax credit of: - 40% of first $6,000 earned per employee provided the employment lasts at least 90 days or 120 hours	May not claim TJTC and OJT for same wages Certification must be requested on or before first day of work	IRS (See Publication #906) State Employment Service Private Industry Council Vocational Rehabilitation (Check State and City governments for local TJTC)
Job Accommodation Network (JAN)	Free consulting service on available aids and devices	None	Call 1-800-JAN-PCEH
Tax Credit on Architectural and Transportation Barrier Removal	Tax deduction on up to $35,000 spent to make a work place more accessible for employees and customers	Improvements must meet Treasury Department standards	Internal Revenue Service
National Association of Retarded Citizens National Employment and Training Program	Reimbursement of: - 50% of entry wage for first 160 hours of on-the-job training - 25% of entry wage for second 160 hours	Worker must be mentally retarded with IQ below 70, at least 16 years old, unemployed over 7 days Position must be permanent, half-time to full-time, pay minimum wage and above	National Association of Retarded Citizens Local Association of Retarded Citizens
Vocational Rehabilitation On-the-Job Training Program	Shared payment of the disabled employee's wages for a limited time on a negotiated schedule	Worker must be a VR client Position must be permanent, full-time, pay minimum wage	Local Vocational Rehabilitation
Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA)	Reimbursement of: - 50% of first 6 months' wages per employee Customized training or retraining	Employer must hire trainee with intent of permanent full-time position	Private Industry Council Chamber of Commerce City or State government
Minimum Wage Exemption Certificate	Certificate allowing employer to pay 75% of minimum wage or 50% for most severely disabled workers	Wage must adequately reflect worker's productive capacity Annual renewal	Department of Labor, Wage & Hour Division Regional Office
Employee Search Agencies	Free referral service of qualified disabled workers	None	Vocational Rehabilitation Governor's or local Committee for Employment of the Handicapped Horticulture Hiring the Disabled
Horticulture Hiring the Disabled Personnel Assistance Program	Free personnel services including job analysis, employee recruitment and screening, employment incentives assistance, job accommodation and job follow-up	Employer or group of employers must have 10 or more job positions Services provided by 6 Area Offices and through a national referral program	Horticulture Hiring the Disabled Call 1-800-634-1603 or in Maryland 301-948-3010

TRANSITION FROM INSTITUTIONAL SETTINGS FOR CHILDREN AND YOUTH WITH SOCIAL PROBLEMS

By Richard Ashcroft, Ed. D.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM:

Social skills levels of adolescents who come in contact with juvenile courts and as a result become "adjudicated," and social skills levels of adolescents labeled seriously emotionally disturbed (SED) may be the most critical variables in reference to their postsecondary transition. Many youth in the above categories exhibit low rates of prosocial behavior and concommitant high rates of aggressive and antisocial behavior. Most youngsters normally exhibit aggressive, antisocial behavior to some degree and in some contexts. Ordinarily, for example, children are more aggressive on the playground than in the classroom, and they tend to exhibit less overt aggression as they grow older. Youth who become adjudicated or are labeled SED typically show age-inappropriate aggression at an earlier age, develop larger repertoires of aggressive and disruptive acts, exhibit aggression and disruption across a wider range of social situations, and persist in aggressive and disruptive behavior for a longer time (Harris, 1979). In addition, they are often rejected by their peers and perceive their peers as being hostile towards them (Dodge & Somberg,1987).

When children exhibit problem social behavior in the early elementary grades, the prognosis is especially grim, unless effective early intervention is provided (Walker, Shinn, O'Neil, & Ramsey, 1987). Without intervention, such youngsters tend to display fairly stable patterns of problem social behavior into adulthood (Olweus, 1979; Quay, 1986). The prognosis for adult adjustment is poor. The pattern of antisocial conduct often keeps these individuals in contact with mental health and criminal justice systems, at considerable cost to society, especially when considered in the additional light of the effects of this behavior upon victims, and the tendency for the pattern of antisocial conduct to be transmitted over generations (Kazdin, 1985; Wolf, Braukmann, & Ramp, 1987).

In general, youth who are adjudicated and/or labeled SED are among the most difficult to serve as students in regular classrooms. They will receive frequent disciplinary referrals and are likely to be sent to educational programs that serve other troubled youth, perhaps providing an immediate solution to a referring teacher's class mangement problems, but quite likely contributing to future increased difficulty for the student by placing him with other students who model inappropriate behaviors.

These students are also likely to have weak natural advocacy systems in place, since common correlates of emotional and social behavioral problems are dysfunctional family environments, histories of having been abused as children, and an inability to form bonded adult relationships (Wolf, Braukmann, & Ramp, 1987). Youth who exhibit serious emotional and behavioral problems in school are likely to experience school dropout, adult criminality, bad conduct discharges from the military, vocational adjustment problems, clinical depression, relationship problems, psychiatric problems, and even high hospitalization and motality rates (Walker, 1991).

Many adjudicated and SED youths have been incarcerated or have been placed in large group homes or other institutions for significant periods of time. Without specific training, individuals attempting normal social integration may experience serious problems if they have been socialized under the stimulus conditions of institutional life. Transition "failure" could be at least partly explained as an artifact of adaptation to the structure of institutional living.

Stokes and Baer (1977) document that changes in behavior displayed under the stimulus conditions of instruction most often do not generalize to more "ambiguous" natural settings. Wehman (interviewed in Clark & Knowlton, 1987) described social skill as "highly contextual" and called for its instruction within the community or at least in the context of real life activities. Yet many adjudicated and SED youth receive their instruction in highly restrictive settings. What passes for social programming in many of these settings is behavior management focusing upon rule compliance as the primary goal. This practice leaves other areas of social behavior that are necessary for successful transition, namely inter / intrapersonal skills, largely undeveloped in the treatment paradigm for social remediation.

A study conducted by Ashcroft (1985) in a residential treatment center for adjudicated wards of the juvenile courts who were also considered seriously emotionally disturbed, surveyed teaching staff to elicit their descriptions of the overall social goals of their program, the social development needs of their students, and their perceptions of the most common reasons for transition failure. Along a continuum from Rule Compliance to Intrapersonal

37

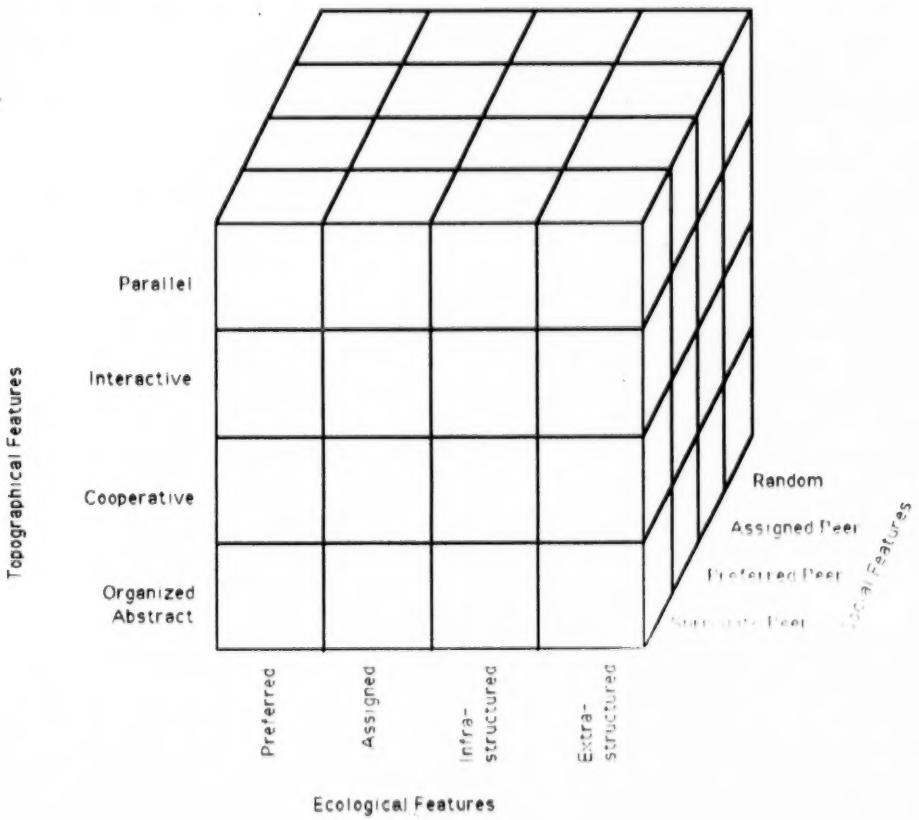
Skill to Interpersonal Skill, staff identified interpersonal skill development as the greatest need and as the main purpose of their teaching. Yet, when these survey responses were compared to a random sample of 48 social IEP goals written by this staff, all 48 goals were for rule compliance, even though inter/ intra-personal skill goals were equally available in the computerized goal menu.

In the years since the passage of Public Law 94-142 in 1975, the trend has been to move handicapped individuals out of large institutions that formerly housed them, working to integrate these individuals into community life. There are currently no institutions of this type under construction or in planning stages in the United States (Kauffman, 1989.) However, those individuals who are diagnosed as having serious emotional and behavioral problems are an apparent exception to this trend since prisons, a likely adult institutional setting for this group, are being constructed at a greater rate than ever in the United States (Rutherford, Nelson, & Wolford, 1985). Incarceration, as an intervention, may exacerbate the problem, since the majority of currently incarcerated adults had been incarcerated as juveniles (Thornton, 1989).

Certainly it is clear that some intervention is needed with youth who have serious problems with social behavior. The youth under discussion place our society at considerable risk. The cost of incarceration, institutionalization, and other postsecondary possibilities alone is an argument to support earlier intervention, and this argument does not include the enormous loss we face collectively by failing as a society to adequately socialize a significant portion of our youth. Schools are increasingly looked to as a dependable socializing agent since at some time, all children attend school. Yet children reject or are rejected by school in large numbers. Among Black children, the dropout rate is 25%, for Hispanics, 40%. We also know that 90% of incarcerated offenders are school dropouts (Carbone, 1990).

It is generally agreed that serious misbehavior in children should be replaced with socially appropriate behavior, but one problem is that few guidelines exist with respect to choosing replacement behaviors. It is in the spirit of conceptualizing a social skill paradigm, as

Figure 1. Conceptual Model



well as "contextualizing" social skill instruction within real life activities, that the model depicted in Figure 1 was developed.

This model conceptualizes social interaction within an activity along three different dimensions. Each dimension has four levels of complexity. The activities used in the initial project that tested the model (Ashcroft, 1987) were all leisure activities although it was noted at the time that it might be applied to other school activities. For the sake of clarity , the examples used to explain the model will be limited to the basketball, a single play object. A basketball can be used for play activities that range from independent informal play to uniformed, coached, highly organized play. The dimensions which interact to create the individual cells of the model are as follows.

Topographical features -- the elements of an activity or task that are intrinsic to the activity itself, such as rules or other constraints, and agreements, overt or tacit that define levels of complexity. The four levels of this dimension and examples are:

1. Parallel —for example, individuals shooting baskets separately yet close enough to be aware;
2. Interactive —for example, individuals shooting at the same basket;
3. Cooperative —for example, shooters adjusting their turn to accomodate other shooters, and;
4. Organized/Abstract —for example, shooters playing a game with common rules.

Ecological features —interactions between and among humans and the environment, such as preferences, especially regarding the agreements, tacit and otherwise, that define the use and potential of a given space. The levels of this dimension and examples are:

1. Preferred —activity/environment relationships that are sought repeatedly; individual is "comfortable" shooting baskets in the playground;
2. Assigned —individual will shoot baskets as a function of assignment (i.e., P.E. class);
3. Infrastructured —basketball as intramural or recess activity, and;
4. Extrastructured —basketball as an interschool or community activity.

Social features —the vulnerability one will accept versus the control one will retain regarding "activity mates." The levels and examples are:

1. Surrogate peer —individual will shoot baskets with a trusted staff member;
2. Preferred peer —individual shoots baskets with a trusted "age mate";
3. Assigned peer —individual shoots basket with a staff-selected peer, and;
4. Random —individual will shoot baskets in an activity where "activity mate" choices occur naturally or as a function of the structure of the activity, such as a tournament.

THE INDIVIDUAL CELLS

The four levels of the three dimensions generate 64 interactions represented as individual cells of the model. These cells can be rank-ordered to create a scale of complexity of interpersonal activity. One example of an activity at the lowest rank is the interaction Parallel/ Preferred/Surrogate . This could describe the activity of an individual who is comfortable with basketball on the playground engaging in parallel play with a preferred staff member. The most complex interaction on this scale is Organized/Extrastructured/Random, describing, for example, an individual participating in an organized, coached team, playing baskeball off-campus or in league play.

DISCUSSION

This scale consisting of the 64 cells, could be used to assess the complexity levels at which an individual typically functions, and to devise specific activities and strategies for teaching the skills that enable an individual to move into more complex activity levels. Activity development decisions would take into consideration which dimension should be focused upon first.

The model presented here represents an exploratory attempt to construct a method for assessing and changing interpersonal skill levels among institutionalized youth, often at risk socially, and typically denied access to natural community social settings. The method has potential for conceptualizing levels of social complexities within other school activities, especially cooperative learning designs or activities that are friendly towards or encourage higher levels of peer interaction. It is likely to have a "contextual congruence" with social programing approaches for other special populations, including individuals with severe handicaps and those with behavioral disorders.

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39

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PARENT INVOLVEMENT IN TRANSITION PROGRAMS

By Jeff McNair, Ph. D.
and
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April, 1988

PARENT INVOLVEMENT IN TRANSITION PROGRAMS

Professionals in various education/rehabilitation disciplines often comment on the importance of parents to the success of educational and rehabilitational programs. Statements justifiably are made indicating that in the absence of special funding or special projects, the single most important factor in successful transition is the parent. It is infrequently stated, however, how parents have been and can be involved, or what parents perceive their role(s) to be.

Schwartz (1970) describes interactive strategies used by mothers involved in the medical care system. She found that the parents she interviewed tended to adopt one of three roles; active questioner, passive acceptor, and those parents who have withdrawn from the system. It seems that in the transition process, parents can assume three similar roles; facilitator, nonparticipant, or difficult parent. As facilitator, a parent contributes to the transition team as an integral team member who is willing to make some kind of commitment (e.g. receive training, attend meetings, assist in finding vocational placements or living arrangements) in order to maximize his or her involvement (Wehman, Kregel, & Barcus, 1985). As nonparticipant, the parent gives those working with their child a "free hand" in individual transition program (ITP) development and implementation. For example, Hill, Seyfarth, Orelove, Wehman, and Banks (1985) found that parents indicated satisfaction with the current program placements for their children regardless of how normalized the placement was or the quality of work-life it offered. These parents do little more than sign the ITP. This is by no means a value judgment of this group, because circumstances sometimes prohibit involvement.

The difficult parent opts for outcomes other than those recommended by the transition team, perhaps because of a past disagreement with one of the members of the transition team, the results of the intense stress at the time of transition (Cole, 1985), or philosophical differences. The work of Hill et al. (1985) supported the third of these potential problems when they found that parents may not agree with the transition team about the importance of employment itself in the adult life of a person with handicaps. At the same time, however, it is important to point out that one person's difficult parent is another person's advocate. Without professionals to take the lead, the parent may be the only defense against inappropriate goals and outcomes. Unfortunately, many transition programs may have avoidance of the difficult parent as their only goal . This is not to imply that they embrace either of the other two types of parents; they merely avoid the third type. Obviously programs based on this strategy of interaction with parents cannot be expected to be successful in acquiring optimal levels of involvement. Researchers need to address more specifically how to facilitate parent involvement. A good starting point would be to assess the current profile of parent involvement in transition programs, including the percentage of clients and their parents being served, the type of involvement and roles that parents are assuming in the transition process (Schutz, 1986), and how this profile matches up with the involvement desired by parents. Additionally, researchers should determine how involvement has affected client outcomes and parent projections for the future (Seyfarth, Hill, McMillan, & Wehman, 1987). It was the goal of this study to look at these issues.

In this study, parents were asked what their involvement has been in the transition process in contrast with involvement they would have desired as well as the kinds of responsibilities they would be willing to assume. We hope that this information will provide (a) an indication of how individual parent desires for involvement are being addressed, and (b) an indication of parents' satisfaction with transition involvement.

METHODOLOGY

Survey Sample

The survey sample consisted of 200 families across the United States having a son or daughter with handicaps in the age range 14 to 25. The sample was identified by the Ohio Coalition of the National Parent CHAIN (Coalitions for Handicapped Awareness and Information Network). The Ohio Coalition contacted the other eight regional coalitions (California, Colorado, Florida, Illinois, Pennsylvania, New York, Texas, and Washington D.C.) and asked each office to identify approximately 20 families

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within their region who met the criterion for inclusion in the sample. These names were then forwarded to the Ohio Coalition.

Survey materials were assembled and coded by the authors and sent to CHAIN where an introductory letter was included, names were coded, and the survey mailed. During this time, the authors remained in close contact with the CHAIN staff. Two weeks after the first mailing, a follow-up letter was sent to nonrespondents encouraging them to respond. Completed packets were then returned to the authors.

Questionnaire

Basic demographic information and information about parent involvement in transition programs was collected. In preparing the questionnaire, a question regarding program involvement was included as a means of comparing the experiences of respondents in transition programs. Respondents could reply to the question, "Which of the following describes your son's(daughter's) involvement in a program to help him(her) to make the transition from school to independent living or work?", by checking one of the following; a) will be involved in a program, b) currently involved in a program, c) has completed a program, or d) there is no program that I know about. These four groups provided a basis for comparison.

Other questions addressed whether parents had a plan in mind for their child once they left school, the kind of information parents felt they needed to make the best decisions for their offspring's future, whether they had been contacted by the school to plan for transition and their knowledge of adult services. A large portion of the survey concerned the types of involvement that parents had had in programs and the type of involvement they would like to/be willing to have in programs.

In order to compare expected and desired outcomes more specifically, parents were provided with 11 statements relating to their son's(daughter's) post-school life and asked to respond to two questions about each statement (see Table 1). First, they were asked "What do you imagine your son(daughter) will be doing once their education is completed," and second, "What would you like to see your son/daughter doing once their education is completed." These and other questions provided a framework for analysis of parent involvement in transition programs.

Data Analysis

Initially, frequencies were generated for each of the survey items. Respondents were then divided into the four groups mentioned earlier based upon their transition program involvement experience. Significant differences among the groups were determined with Student's t-tests and analysis of variance.

Data were considered missing if a question mark was placed on a response blank rather than a check, if two marks were made for a question requiring only one, or if the respondent created and checked her own category.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Of the 200 surveys sent, 108 were returned. Of these, 85 were correctly completed the survey and had met the criteria for inclusion (offspring between the ages of 14 and 25). Surveys were received from 22 states. Most respondents lived in suburban areas (51%; urban, 19%; rural, 27%). Virtually all of the respondents were white (99%), and all surveys were completed by the mother of the child with handicaps. Mothers' ages ranged from 34 to 62 with a mean of 47, and fathers' ages ranged from 36 to 72 with a mean of 49. Twenty-five percent indicated that high school was the highest educational level achieved, 62% indicated college experience. Sixty-two percent of the parents had annual incomes of more than $30,000, and 24% had incomes of $20-30,000 dollars. Eighty-nine percent of families were two-parent families, 87% were married, 1% single and 9% divorced.

In 62% of cases, there were either three or four persons living in the household, with 72% having three or fewer children. In 59% of the families only one person worked full time and in 31%, two persons worked full time; and in 33%, one person worked part time (52% no one worked part time). Ninety-four percent indicated a religous affiliation, and 61% considered themselves regular church attenders (6%, often; 27% seldom; 6%, never). Eighty-eight percent had only 1 child with handicaps and they were most often the first born (45%) or second born (21%). Twelve percent had more than one child with handicaps. Finally, 56% of the offspring were male and 44% were female. Ages of the offspring with handicaps ranged from 14 to 25 with a mean of 18.6.

Offspring Characteristics

Parents were given a list of handicaps and encouraged to check all handicapping conditions that applied to their child. Therefore, parents may have checked learning disability and sensory impairment, for example, in reference to a single child. The most frequently checked responses were learning disability, physical handicaps, and moderate mental retardation.

Seventy-four percent of parents considered their child as healthy and 63% stated their child appeared physically normal. Five percent of persons with handi-

caps had received special education services for 0-5 years, 32% for 6-10 years, 40% 11-15 years and 23% 16-21 years.

Expected and Desired Post-School Outcomes

We asked parents what they thought their child with handicaps would be doing once school was completed. In 63% of cases, parents had a plan in mind for what their son or daughter would be doing after the school years.

Independent Living

Table 1 shows that although more than 50% of parents expected their child to live at home once their schooling was completed, significantly fewer than this number desired this arrangement. Also, although only marginally significant, it was indicated that although few parents imagined their child will have their own apartment or live in the community, in each case parents felt these were desirable outcomes. None of the parents imagined or desired institutional placement as an option.

Vocation

There were no significant differences between the percentage of those who imagined their child would work in a sheltered workshop and those who desired this outcome. In each case these groups were represented by less than a third of the parents, perhaps indicating parents want more normalized outcomes. When one looks at the responses to the next statement, "Hold a job in the community," it appears that this may indeed be the case. Although only 50% of parents imagined their child would hold a job in the community, a significantly greater number of parents desired this outcome. This contention was further supported by the importance parents placed on wages as a desired outcome. Via three statements about wages (earn less than, more than or the minimum wage), it was demonstrated that to a significant degree, parents (a) do not desire their children to earn less than minimum wage, (b) appear satisfied with the earning of minimum wage, but (c) would like their child to earn more than the minimum wage (statistically significant at the 0.05 level).

When asked to indicate the types of information that would help parents plan for their son's(daughter's) post-school life, 40% indicated more information about their son's/daughter's skills, 66% indicated more information about work options, 37% wanted more information about community living options, and 56% wanted more information about adult service agencies. Other kinds of assistance parents felt would be helpful were increased financial support, 35%, increased emotional support from their family, 20%, involvement in a parent support group, 24%, and increased professional support, 48%.

Transition Program Involvement

A comparison was made of transition program involvement experience and desired involvement in such programs to gain insight into parent satisfaction with involvement. Among the seven variables tested, we

TABLE 1

What parents imagine their adult children will be doing upon their completion of schooling compared with what they would like them to be doing. (N=85)

	Which of the following do you imagine your son(daughter) will be doing o. ce he(she) is finished with school?	Which of the following would you like to see your son(daughter) doing once he(she) is finished with school?	Significance of difference
Living at home	54.8	25.6	0.0001
Living in a group home	28.6	37.8	0.156
Living in his(her) own apartment	28.6	42.7	0.058
Living in the community	27.4	41.5	0.057
Living in a state institution	0.0	0.0	1.000
Working in a sheltered workshop	28.6	20.7	0.244
Holding a job in the community	48.8	67.1	0.017
Not working at all	7.1	0.0	0.014
Earning less than minimum wage	22.6	1.2	0.0001
Earning minimumwage	26.2	27.2	0.889
Earning more than minimum wage	26.2	54.9	0.0001

TABLE 2

Actual transition program involvement versus desired transition program involvement (%).

	What kind(s) of involvement have you had in programs assisting your son(daughter) with the transition from school to work? (Groups 2 & 3 , n=32)	What kind(s) of involvement would you like to have in programs assisting your son(daughter) with thetransition from school to work? (Groups 1,2,3 & 4, n=85)	Significance of difference
A member of thetransition team	33.3	68.0	0.001
An equal part in decision making	54.5	78.7	0.01
Involved in finding potential job placements	37.5	54.7	0.106
Involved in finding potential community living arrangements	31.2	49.3	0.086
The person who makes all the final decisions	28.1	21.3	0.755
A resource person who is called upon only if needed	12.5	16.0	0.646
No involvement, I wouldrather leave it up to the professionals (teachers, rehabilitation counselors, etc.)	12.5	1.3	0.012

found several significant differences (see Table 2). First, parents were significantly less involved in transition programs than they desired. Nearly 70% desired involvement, whereas less than half experience involvement. Second, significantly more parents desired to have an equal part in decision making than were given the opportunity to do so. Third, although 12% indicated no involvement experience with the transition team, less than 2% indicated that they desired no involvement.

In other areas, parents indicated that they wanted to be involved in finding job placements and community living arrangements, and it appears they had the opportunity to do so. Although it was found only marginally significant that parents were not having the opportunity to fill these roles, the authors suggest that particularily in regard to securing vocational placements, parents may be a largely untapped resource. Professionals often are new to a community or do not live in the community in which they are teaching. They may also have recently completed their education, or have been educators and therefore out of touch with the business world. Parents therefore may have greater success, or know of significantly more opportunities within the community for employment simply because they may have lived and worked in the community all their lives. Additionally, parents appear to desire a part in finding independent living arrangements for their children. Clearly professionals are particularily amiss if they do not recruit and encourage parent involvement in these areas.

Then, although fewer parents wanted to be the final decision maker than found themselves in that role, the difference was not significant. This was also the case for a small percentage of parents wanting to act as resource referrals. There was no significant difference between the percentage desiring that role and the percentage experiencing the role.

Parents were then provided with four options from which to select their transition program involvement. Twenty-one percent (n=16) indicated they will be involved in a program (Group 1), 28% (n=22) indicated that they were currently involved (Group 2), 13% (n=10) indicated they had completed a program (Group 3), and 38% (n=29) indicated that they were unaware of any program (Group 4).

Analysis of variance indicated some significant differences among the groups. The ages of Groups 1 (mean 16.3 years), and 4 (mean 16.9 years) were significantly different from Groups 2 (mean 20.1 years) and 3 (mean 22.7 years) at the .05 level. This may indicate that children of parents in Group 4 are as yet too young to be involved in a transition program, offering hope that although parents reported knowing of no programs, there

TABLE 3

Group percentages compared on the question, "What do you imagine your son(daughter) will be doing once he(she) is finished with school?" (check all that apply).

	% Group 1 (n=16)	% Group 2 (n=22)	% Group 3 (n=10)	% Group 4 (n=29)
Living at home	43.8	54.5	50.0	65.5
Living in a group home	31.3	36.4	40.0	24.1
Living in the community	43.8	22.7	20.0	20.7
Living in his/her own apartment	31.3	18.2+	70.0#	13.8+
Living in a state institution	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Working in a sheltered workshop	43.8	36.4	10.0	24.1
Holding a job in the community	43.8	45.5	70.0	41.4
Not working at all	6.3	0.0	10.0	10.3
Earning more than minimum wage	25.0	27.3	50.0	13.8
Earning minimum wage	37.5	18.2	50.0	24.1
Earning less than minimum wage	31.3	18.2	10.0	17.2

+ = Significantly less than Group 3.

Group 1 = Will be involved in a transition program.
Group 2 = Currently involved in a transition program.
Group 3 = Have completed a transition program.
Group 4 = There is no transition program that I am aware of.

may be one for them in the future. Secondly, members of Group 2 had spent significantly more time in special education services than those of the other groups. Members of groups 2 and 3 had been contacted significantly more often than Group 4 members by the school to enlist their involvement; that is, with the transition team. Perhaps this indicates that the school contact affects parent involvement, i.e., parents infrequently initiate contact with the transition team, or more obviously that if there is no program, there is no contact. There were no significant differences between program involvement groups based upon handicapping condition. In other words, handicapping conditions were generally equally represented across the four groups.

It was observed that parents involved in a transition program (Groups 2,3 vs. Group 4) were significantly more likely to have formulated a post school plan for their son/daughter with handicaps. Also, there was a significant difference between parents' perceived knowledge of adult services. Groups 1 and 2 felt more aware of community adult service options than did Group 4. There was no difference between Group 3 and the other groups, possibly indicating that although parents anticipating program involvement or currently involved in a program may feel knowledgable about adult services, once they are involved with them, they find they know less then they had thought. There was obviously a greater transition team involvement for groups 2 and 3 than for Group 4, and finally, a significantly greater percentage of persons who completed a transition program (Group 3) were employed than those in groups 1 or 4.

As indicated in Table 3, there was only one significant difference among the four groups regarding what parents imagined their son(daughter) would be doing once he(she) was finished with school. Parents in Group 3 were significantly more likely to think that their son(daughter) would be living in his(her) own apartment once their schooling was over, than were parents in Groups 2 or 4. This result is difficult to interpret in regard to Group 2, expecially when one considers the age difference between the groups is so small. One potential explanation is that perhaps transition teams do not begin actively seeking independent living arrangements until the final year of the transition program. Therefore, parents in Group 2 would not be aware of or involved in finding placements until that final year. The lack of significance among the groups across the other items was also interesting, implying that involvement in a transition program does little to change parents' expectations. A second potential interpretation is that the parents surveyed were already pretty much aware of their son's(daughter's) abilities and options.

Another area we wanted to explore was what parents would be willing to do in order to be most involved with the transition team. Parents responded to the question,"In order to be most involved in the transition process, I

45

would be willing to..." by checking as many of the eight statements that followed, that characterized the kinds of commitments they would be willing to make (Table 4). To slightly varying degrees, parents indicated that they would be willing to make each of the commitments listed. We then separated responses according to the four groups described earlier, and found that parents generally were in agreement among the groups about the varying involvement responsibilities. In fact, the only statistically significant difference was between groups 3 and 4 in regard to the variable, "Assist in the training of other parents." This finding is not surprising, when one considers the comparison was between parents who had completed a program and those who were not even aware of a program. One other variable was particularly worthy of note. Only 1.2% (one parent) indicated that she "would rather leave it up to the professionals." In other words, virtually all parents wanted to have some kind of involvement in the transition process.

GENERAL DISCUSSION

The parents represented by our sample were generally those who might be characterized as "active," as all were involved in parents groups to some extent. Although over one third of parents were without programs, nearly two thirds were involved or were anticipating involvement in some type of transition program. Significantly more parents wanted to be involved with the transition team and have an equal part in decision making than had the opportunity to do so. In fact, virtually all parents desired involvement. It is therefore the responsibility of the transition team to seek out the parent and offer a range of involvement opportunites from which the parent can choose, acting with the assumption that the parent generally does desire some level of involvement. The fact that several desired levels of transition team involvement appeared to match up with those experienced, may reflect a sensitivity by the transition team to the individual parent in providing opportunities for their involvement in the program. Parents also indicated that they had preferences for their sons'(daughters') post-school life, relating to not living at home, working in the community and earning a wage equal to or greater than the minimum.

NOTES

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TABLE 4

What parents are willing to do to be involved in transition programs (%).

	Group 1 (n=16)	Group 2 (n=22)	Group 3 (n=10)	Group 4 (n=29)
Attend weekly meetings	25.0	42.1	20.0	48.3
Attent monthly meetings	62.5	57.9	40.0	72.4
Take transition training	62.5	79.0	50.0	79.3
Solve logistical problems	43.8	57.9	40.0	43.8
Train other parents	56.3	73.7	90.0	51.7+
Participate in parent training group	50.0	73.7	70.0	65.5
Participate in parent support group	68.8	79.0	80.0	69.0
Leave everything up to the experts	6.2	0.0	10.0	0.0

+ = Significantly less than Group 3.
Group 1 = Will be involved in a transition program.
Group 2 = Currently involved in a transition program.
Group 3 = Have completed a transition program.
Group 4 = There is no transition program that I am aware of.

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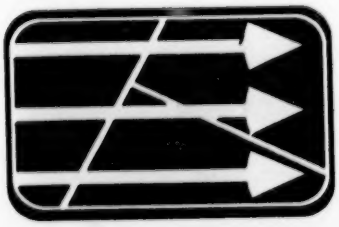
47



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